

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

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PREFACE

The American system of public education is administered through a series of units designed to provide articulated progress for children from the nursery school or the kindergarten to the university. The first cycle in this system of education, commonly termed "elementary education," is administered through approximately 250,000 separate buildings called "elementary schools." Nearly 91,000 of these elementary schools consist of more than one classroom. The majority of the latter group of schools are graded schools, modeled after the pattern of organization first applied in the Quincy Grammar School of Boston in 1848 by John D. Philbrick.

Elementary education of the present day, like other forms of education, is an extremely complex type of service rendered annually to approximately 21,000,000 children in a highly complex social order. Concurrently with the development of an industrial civilization, rapid strides were made in the science of education. As educational theory and practice have attempted to adjust themselves to and to keep abreast of a rapidly changing social order, the scope of elementary education, as measured by the number of children served and by the variety of services rendered, has increased and the school has assumed a different rôle in the training of youth than it formerly did. To administer current elementary education in the light of modern conceptions of teaching and learning is not an easy task. The organization of the school must be responsive to changes in educational theory if modern psychology and present concepts of teaching are to find expression in classroom instruction. The administrator is confronted continuously with a variety of problems which seek solution through organization and administration. In the attempts to solve

these many problems which arise the administrator will wish to give critical examination to current administrative practices, to review fundamental principles of organization in the light of current educational thought, and to familiarize himself with progressive practice. It is to assist those who administer elementary education in the analysis of basic problems of organization and administration that this book has been prepared.

Since the book is intended for those who administer elementary education it should be of interest to superintendents, supervisors, principals, classroom teachers, and others who render services in the elementary school. It is generally recognized that the chief responsibility for the efficient organization and operation of the elementary schools rests with the building principals. Hence the book will probably be of greatest interest to elementary-school principals, either those now in service or those contemplating the elementary principalship as a career in education. Doubtless elementary classroom teachers may profit by reading it, as it will give them a more comprehensive view of the organization of the institution in which they teach and of their part in and relationship to the effective administration of the elementary school. The book should also serve well as a textbook in courses in "elementary school administration" in colleges, teachers' colleges, and universities. Most of the materials have been put to the test of classroom use in the writer's classes on elementary-school administration at Northwestern University.

Although the book is primarily a consideration of basic problems in the organization and administration of elementary education, an attempt has been made throughout to relate fundamental principles to practical situations. Whenever possible the principals' and the teachers' relationships to the topics under discussion have been emphasized. At many points illustrations have been drawn from progressive school practice. To keep the volume from becoming too large, it has been necessary to differentiate and select the content. It has been

possible to give only a brief treatment to some of the topics. For this reason detailed administrative techniques have not been dealt with except as it was found essential to do so in the presentation of principles or in the application of them. It is hoped that whenever a problem is of peculiar local interest the reader will consult the more extensive studies and writings treating of the particular topic. To guide the reader to pertinent related discussions, the manuscript has been supplied liberally with footnote references. The selected bibliography at the end of each chapter is not designed to be comprehensive but rather to supplement the footnote references given throughout each chapter and to list sources which supplement the present treatment or have points of view differing from those of the author.

It is with deep gratitude that the author acknowledges the helpful suggestions which have come from the investigations and the writings of other professional workers in education and from the many elementary-school principals who have contributed directly or indirectly. It would be an act of ingratitude to overlook the courtesies of authors and publishers who have consented to the use of quoted materials. Complete reference is made in the text at each point where published or unpublished materials have been used. Most of the drawings were made by students in advanced mechanical drawing classes directed by R. F. Van Deventer at the Evanston Township High School.

The author acknowledges his appreciation for the many helpful suggestions given by the editors, Dr. Fred Engelhardt of the University of Minnesota and Dr. Fred C. Ayer of the University of Texas. The writer also wishes to take this opportunity to thank his colleague, Dr. Ernest O. Melby of Northwestern University, for his critical reading of the entire manuscript and for the suggestions given. Equal gratitude is due the author's wife, Mildred Wagner Otto, who assisted in assembling the manuscript.

H. J. O.

EDITORS' INTRODUCTION

The dynamic nature of elementary-school organization and administration is most vividly portrayed as one traces the elementary school from the beginning of the graded-school organization created with the Quincy Grammar School in 1848 to the modern schools of to-day. The history of this movement is in itself most fascinating and revealing and should serve as a challenge to every professional worker associated with the common schools.

Even to the casual observer the schools of to-day are unlike the schools of yesterday, and no doubt the schools of to-morrow will be progressively in keeping with the larger democratic needs of modern society. There are times when the changes that are taking place in public-school organization and administration are somewhat obscured to the teacher because of the intimate relationships that exist between the worker and the enterprise. While busily at work in promoting the best welfare of the schools in which they are engaged the professional personnel are unaware of how their efforts direct the destiny of the enterprise they serve. No doubt those who struggled against the formalism of the elementary school during the decades prior to the beginning of the twentieth century did not know of the changes in organization and management that their struggle for a better school would produce.

Schools function in a living social medium and the services the schools are to render must be determined in the light of the developments that are taking place in this medium. Educational aims and purposes are constantly being modified to meet service demands, and the organization and the administration of the schools must be sensitive to the new requirements in

order that the institution may readily make adjustments and carry on more economically and efficiently. Hence from time to time teachers, supervisors, and administrators must pause to review critically the machinery that they have created and test it in view of the ends they endeavor to achieve.

The author of this book has produced a timely, critical, and historical review of the organization and administration of the elementary school. The outcome of his research and work has made possible a thoroughly modern textbook treating of elementary schools, their organization and management. He has shown uncommon skill and insight in his selection of those materials that reveal most completely the trends in the elementary-school movement. The unique approach in this book brings together for the first time many illuminating facts and the consequence of many researches that should be familiar to every elementary-school worker. The analysis of current best practices provides an excellent basis with which the superintendent, the supervisor, the principal, and the teacher may compare their activities. The interpretation of trends and movements serves well as a challenge to that increasing body of professional students employed in schools who realize that change in education is inevitable but who are determined that the direction the change shall take will be consistent with the efforts made by those professional workers competent to lead and to unfold the true meaning of the results of scientific work.

The editors take pleasure in presenting this volume as one of a series designed for the professional improvement and stimulation of those who choose to devote their enthusiasm and efforts to the promotion of the welfare of public education.

FRED C. AYER

FRED ENGELHARDT

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**ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION**

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The first American elementary schools were most simple and direct in their organization and management.¹ They were generally held in the homes of the teachers or in one-room buildings of the crudest sort. Methods of teaching were not well developed and the equipment and materials were exceedingly primitive and meager. Definite grading of the work was unknown, and the children were taught for the most part as individuals. The aims of elementary instruction were narrow in scope as compared to present-day aims and functions. The curriculum of the school consisted largely of the three R's.²

To administer the simple types of elementary education provided during the early American period, particularly in the seventeenth and the early part of the eighteenth centuries, required no elaborate organization. During the time that has since elapsed, elementary education has met with enormous developments in the scope of its program and in material facilities. Even within the twentieth century the character of

¹ "The school of the seventeenth century was a simple thing. It consisted largely of some one to teach and some to be taught. Complex systems of education, with costly plants, complicated courses of study . . . there were none." Henry Suzzallo, *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*, Contributions to Education, No. 3 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1906), p. 10.

² ". . . the curriculum of the American elementary school down to the American Revolution included reading and writing as fundamental subjects, with perhaps a little arithmetic for the more favored schools. Spelling was emphasized toward the end of the period. The subjects that had no place were composition, singing, drawing, object study, physiology, nature study, geography, history, secular literature, and manual training." S. C. Parker, *The History of Modern Elementary Education* (Ginn and Co., 1912), p. 84.

elementary education has experienced many changes which have significant implications for school organization and administration. A brief review of some of these developments may be helpful in giving a clearer picture of the problems faced by organization and administration in an effort to apply modern educational theory.

GROWTH IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATIONAL SERVICE

The growth of any institution or service is usually accompanied by the development of increasingly complex problems of organization and administration. Elementary education is no exception to this general proposition. The number of children to whom educational service is rendered annually by the elementary schools of the country has increased approximately 50 per cent since 1900. In 1900 there were enrolled in public elementary schools and in public kindergartens, 14,983,-859 pupils.³ By 1930 this figure had increased to 21,278,593.⁴ During this same interval enrollment in public kindergartens alone increased from 225,394⁵ to 723,443. Along with the general increase in total enrollments has come more regular attendance. It is estimated that the average daily attendance in public schools, elementary and secondary, has increased more than 100 per cent from 1900 to 1930.⁶ Although this latter figure may be unduly influenced by the unusual growth of the high-school population, it is evident that elementary schools have been called upon to serve daily a larger proportion of their constituency. The school year, too, has changed in length from an average of eight months in 1900 to an average of eight and one-half months in 1930, with many cities operating on a ten-month basis. To care for the increas-

³ Includes elementary grades in junior high schools.

⁴ E. M. Foster, in the *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930*, Vol. II, Ch. i, "Statistical Summary of Education, 1929-1930."

⁵ Includes enrollments in public and private kindergartens.

⁶ *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930*, Vol. I, U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 20, p. 29.

ing number of children, more teachers and more and better school facilities have been needed. The number of teachers in public elementary schools increased from 402,690 in 1900 to 640,957 in 1930. The value of school property averaged \$218 per child in 1928 as compared to \$111 in 1920. The total cost of elementary and secondary education changed from approximately \$200,000,000 in 1900 to about \$2,500,000,000 in 1930.

The influences which have been at work in bringing about the growth in elementary educational service are numerous and varied. Growth of population in the United States has been one factor. The development, adoption, and application of more effective compulsory attendance laws in the various states between 1890 and 1918 have exerted some influence. Paralleling the extension of compulsory attendance has been an increasing interest in the importance of and the need for basic-education training in a social democracy, the complexity and industrialization of which has progressed rapidly. Cities have grown in number and in size. In 1900 there were 779 cities with populations of 5,000 and over. By 1930 the number of cities of this size had increased to 1,833. The growth of cities may have only incidental relationship to the increase in the number of children served by the elementary school, yet it is evident that as cities have become larger, school administration has of necessity become more complex; problems of organization, supervision, and direction have developed in scope and perhaps in difficulty of solution. The personnel, both teacher and pupil, of the system has been distributed to cover wide areas of territory and the individual local school units within the system have frequently developed enormously in size, in curricular offering, and in complexity of organization. The various schools are frequently distantly removed from the central administrative offices. The essential fact is that numerous factors, only a few of which have been named, have been operative to produce an expansion of elementary educational service, which, in turn creates new problems or changes the character of old questions relat-

ing to the organization and administration of elementary education.

THE WIDENED FUNCTIONS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

In addition to, and perhaps quite apart from, the quantitative expansion of elementary education, the school has assumed much wider functions and responsibilities than it did even thirty years ago. The progress in social organization and the accompanying changes in the general conditions of living have tended to shift the burdens for rearing and training children more and more from the home to the school. In response, the school curriculum has expanded. New subjects have been added. The "extracurricular" have become curricular. New activities—literary, dramatic, musical, athletic, civic, and social—have been developed. The modern school is no longer a mere place for academic instruction, for all aspects of child development are now the concern of the school. The schools have undertaken to direct many sides of juvenile life formerly controlled by the home, the community, the state, the church, or other agencies of organized society. These new ventures and widened functions of the school have inevitably created additional burdens for the administrator and for the teacher. Buildings, equipment, materials, and staff must be provided; curricula must be developed; teaching programs must be planned; in fact, all aspects of organization and administration must be considered in terms of the composite functions of elementary education.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PUPIL GROUPS

Developments in public education which had been under way prior to the opening of the present century and which have continued since, have tended to bring into the schools larger and larger proportions of the children of elementary-school age until the elementary schools of the nation have been characterized for some time as ministering to "all the

children of all the people." As all or nearly all children of each age group found their way into the schools, those enrolled in any one age or grade group manifested greater dissimilarity of intellectual, emotional, and physical traits than did the former more highly selected groups. The rapidly changing character of the elementary-school population created new problems of instruction and of administration.⁷ A variety of ways for coping with the situation, such as quarterly or semiannual promotions, double-track curricula, enrichment plans, helping teachers, remedial sections, and a variety of special classes for atypical children, were proposed and tried.

Although the differences among children had long been recognized, perhaps always, the extent of those differences and their import for education was not appreciated to any large degree until the standardized objective, mental, and achievement tests were developed. With the aid of these instruments educators have been able to measure with increasing accuracy the traits and abilities of children and to ascertain more carefully the differences among children. Probably no one field of investigation has influenced educational procedures and thought more than that which gives objective recognition to individual differences.⁸ The more systematic attempt to study the differences between people originated in the psychological laboratory just prior to 1900.⁹ At first the variations among persons were not considered important, but they have, "in the judgment of the educator, assumed a place so important that no educational procedure can be arranged or no piece of research dealing with instruction carried out unless differences between pupils are first taken into consideration."¹⁰

⁷ See: "The Schools of a People," *Twenty-Sixth Annual Report of the President and the Treasurer of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching* (New York, The Carnegie Foundation, 1931).

⁸ Garrison and Garrison, *The Psychology of Elementary-School Subjects* (Richmond, Johnson Publishing Co., 1929), p. 1.

⁹ F. N. Freeman, *Mental Tests* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926), Ch. ii.

¹⁰ Garrison and Garrison, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

To crystallize attention upon the implications for school administration growing out of the variations in the traits and abilities of pupils, reference may be made to data gathered from representative school systems. The manner in which schools of to-day are commonly organized and administered results in the formation of class groups, the individuals of which differ widely in mental and chronological ages as well as in school attainments. The age-grade chart found in a recent annual report showed that in every grade except the second, the pupils represent a chronological-age span of at least six years.¹¹ Within any one grade the range in mental age for this same group of children varied from three and one-half years in Grade 2 to nine years in Grade 6. If mental age were taken as a criterion, 14 per cent of the children of the sixth grade could well have been classified in the senior high school while three pupils of the same group fall below the normal mental-age limits for the fifth grade. Frequently the pupils of any one grade who deviate from the norm as do some of those represented in these data are scattered widely throughout the district so that it becomes difficult to organize classes of a more homogeneous character.

The children of typical school grades manifest not only the variations in chronological and mental ages as shown in the above paragraph but also similar differences in attainments in the various subjects of the curriculum. Among a group of forty pupils of Grade 5A (Fig. 1) it was found that ability in language usage ranged from a subject age of seven and one-half years to sixteen and one-half years, i.e., from third-grade ability to eleventh-grade ability. Other nearly comparable variations in academic achievements may be observed in Figure 1.

Another type of information which has significance for both the classroom teacher and the administrator pertains to the heterogeneous character of the abilities found within the

¹¹ C. J. Dalthorp, *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools* (Aberdeen, S. Dak., June 30, 1931).

individual pupil. It is perhaps common knowledge that most pupils are not equally adept in all subjects of the curriculum. The extent of variation in attainment in the several subjects of study is suggested by the data represented in Figure 2. Note that in one subject, pupil R. G. has a subject age of seven and one-half years while in another subject he has a subject age of fourteen years. At the opposite extreme is pupil

SUBJECT	SUBJECT AGE IN YEARS																			
	7½	8	8½	9	9½	10	10½	11	11½	12	12½	13	13½	14	14½	15	15½	16	16½	17
READING PASSAGE MEANING																				
READING WORD MEANING																				
DICTATION EXERCISE																				
LANGUAGE USAGE																				
LITERATURE																				
HISTORY AND CIVICS																				
GEOGRAPHY																				
PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE																				
ARITHMETIC																				
ARITHMETIC COMPUTATION																				
TOTAL EDUCATIONAL AGE																				
MENTAL AGE																				
CHRONOLOGICAL AGE																				

FIG. 1. THE RANGES IN SUBJECT AGES ON THE VARIOUS PARTS OF THE NEW STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST, ADVANCED EXAMINATION. FORM Y, REPRESENTED IN A CLASS OF FORTY PUPILS IN GRADE 5A.

The class represents a typical class in a school in which homogeneous grouping is not practiced. The data were gathered during the fall of 1931. Courtesy of Miss Elsie Wikholm, Cicero, Illinois.

R. A. whose highest subject attainment is but one year above his lowest subject age. It will also be observed that the lowest attainment in any subject ranges from seven and one-half years (for the first nine pupils in Fig. 2) to twelve and one-half years (last pupil in Fig. 2). Correspondingly the highest attainment in any subject varies from eleven years (pupil R. S.) to sixteen and one-half years (pupil J. S.).

As a rule, a survey of the current educational status of the children in the various grades of any particular elemen-

tary school does not set forth clearly the forces which have contributed to create the heterogeneous character of class groups which are commonly found in schools to-day. Administrative policies regarding the admission, classification, and

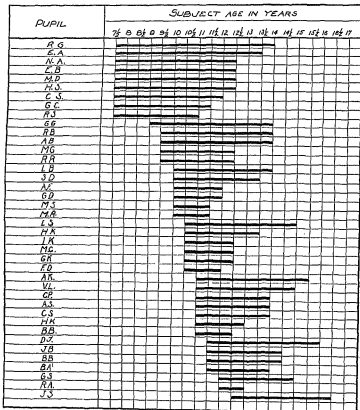


FIG. 2. RANGE IN SUBJECT AGES FOR EACH OF FORTY PUPILS IN GRADE 5A, STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TEST, ADVANCED EXAMINATION: FORM Y.

Read as follows: Pupil R. G. obtained a subject age on one part of the Stanford Achievement Test as low as 7½ years and a subject age as high as 14 years on another part of the test. His subject ages on other phases of the test fell somewhere between these two extremes. Pupils are the same as those represented in Figure 1. Courtesy of Miss Elsie Wikholm, Cicero, Illinois.

promotion of pupils are important factors. Some investigations have emphasized the significance of health. But possibly more potent than any of the causes named above are the differences in pupil traits growing out of variations in native endowment.¹² Among the latter group of causes, probably the most important are the different rates at which children learn and progress in the various school subjects and the differences in the nature of the difficulties which retard progress.¹³

Some would argue that the problem of dealing with individual differences is largely one of instruction. It is assumed that if teachers are adequately trained and provided with teaching and testing materials, the administration is relieved and need not concern itself with the educational problems arising from the variations in pupil abilities. It is common knowledge, however, that in many school systems well trained teachers have been handicapped in their efforts to provide for individual differences of children because the organization of the school and the manner of its administration created insurmountable obstacles. When teachers are called upon to cover specifically outlined units of the course of study in a specified time, or when methods of teaching are prescribed in detail, there is little time or opportunity to teach children, each according to his particular needs. The situation becomes complicated further if class groups are large and organized

¹² A comprehensive summary of the studies dealing with factors other than intelligence which affect success in school is given in A. H. Turney, *Factors Other than Intelligence that Affect Success in High School* (Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1930).

¹³ "It is estimated that the most gifted child 'will in comparison with the least gifted of the same age do six times as much in the same time or do the same amount with less than a sixth as many errors. It is also held that the best pupil can do from two to five times as much in a given time as the poorest pupil, even where schools are supposedly graded well and where pupils are classified every six months.'" *Five Unifying Factors in American Education, Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence* (1931), pp. 110-111.

See also the data presented by Washburne and Horn in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II* (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1925).

without following any definite policy for classification. It is not difficult to see how the problem of adapting instruction to individual differences embodies school organization and administration in nearly all of its aspects. Classes must be organized, properly trained teachers must be selected, teachers' programs must be planned, courses of study organized, supervision of the proper quality and kind provided, materials of instruction must be purchased, school buildings erected, the school budget prepared—and all in terms of the type of instruction expected of the classroom teacher.

CHANGING CONCEPTIONS OF EDUCATION

During the last three or four decades there has been accumulating a vast quantity of knowledge about children and the way they learn. There has also been, during this same period, an unusually rapid development of the industrialization of civilization. These factors, together with certain other movements, have influenced or have been accompanied by changes in educational theory which have important implications for school organization and administration.¹⁴ The frontier thinkers in education have pointed out repeatedly the inadequacy of the traditional school with its formal instruction, its rigid program of classes, its comprehensively formulated curricula

¹⁴ "In the century from 1825 to 1925, moreover, as America developed her institutions, her people were constantly confronted by problems and issues. Problems of conservation of natural and human resources. Problems of immigration, of assimilation, and of heterogeneity of cultures. Problems of wise use of leisure time. Problems of government control of great industries and of credit, the economic foundation of industrialism. Problems of proper distribution of the social income, continuous employment. Problems of neighborhood and community living and of family life. Problems of creating an informed, thinking citizenship in the midst of city life. World problems of economic imperialism and of war and peace. Problems bound up in an emerging national culture.

"And with these staggering issues confronting the American people, what of the school and its curriculum?" Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker, *The Child-Centered School* (copyright 1928 by The World Book Company, Publishers, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York), pp. 14-15.

to be mastered by children—all in the interests of an economic program for mass education. As early as 1900 Dewey pointed out the shortcomings of the “sitting and listening” school.¹⁵ The emphasis has been shifting gradually from the vested interests of the school which developed rapidly without particular reference to the needs of growing children, to the interests and needs of children. For some this transition in point of view implied that the school was to become a place where children could *live as children*, rather than an institution whose sole objective should be preparation for adult life. The implication was that living child life to the fullest, meeting and solving each day’s problems as they arise, is the best type of preparation for coping successfully with the problems of later life. In some centers this notion was probably carried to the extreme and unguided chaos resulted. Among the more conservative progressives, however, it meant a more thorough recognition of the needs, interests, and abilities of children in an endeavor to attain the purposes of elementary education. The sacredness of academic subject-matter was relegated to the background and in its place was put the welfare of individual children.¹⁶

¹⁵ “I may have exaggerated somewhat in order to make plain the typical points of the old education: Its passivity of attitude, its mechanical massing of children, its uniformity of curriculum and method. It may be summed up by saying that the center of gravity is outside the child. It is in the teacher, the textbook, anywhere and everywhere you please except in the immediate instincts and activities of the child himself. On that basis there is not much to be said about the *life* of the child. A good deal might be said about the studying of the child, but the school is not the place where the child *lives*. Now the change which is coming into our education is the shifting of the center of gravity. It is a change, a revolution, not unlike that introduced by Copernicus when the astronomical center shifted from the earth to the sun. In this case the child becomes the sun about which the appliances of education revolve; he is the center about which they are organized.” John Dewey, *The School and Society* (The University of Chicago Press, 1899), p. 51.

¹⁶ F. N. Freeman, “Should the Curriculum Be Built on Children’s Interests or Social Needs?” *School Executives Magazine*, Vol. 50 (August, 1931), pp. 553-579.

As one might anticipate, the endeavors to modify the traditional school which had received such severe criticism, centered largely on curriculum and method. The demand for the integration and unity of child experience challenged the subject-compartment organization of the elementary-school program. To make life in school conform as much as possible to the real out-of-school situations and problems which confront children it was deemed necessary to make classroom experiences purposeful, whole-hearted, and integrated. Lines of subject-matter demarcation were considered relatively unimportant. The curriculum became as broad as life itself and the content for school activities was drawn from the various fields of knowledge which seemed pertinent to the solution of the problems at hand.¹⁷

Although all are not agreed as to the exact form which the new education ought to take,¹⁸ yet certain phases of the movement have been widely accepted. The need for giving greater recognition to the individual has become an axiom in teaching. This principle has found expression even in conventional schools in which the older type of curriculum has been divided into definite units of work and individual pupils have been permitted to progress, each at his own pace.¹⁹ In spite of the criticisms which have been launched against teaching by proj-

¹⁷ "The essence of the curriculum as used in this experiment is the purpose of boys and girls in real life. As such it is necessarily as broad as life itself and is not limited to any set of prescribed performances to be engaged in by boys and girls in a particular sequence as is the usual interpretation of the school curriculum. In this sense the curriculum is a living thing, *child experiencing*, no more capable of standardization in the sense of performances prescribed in advance and from above than is any other living, growing thing." Ellsworth Collings, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum* (The Macmillan Co., 1929), pp. vii-viii.

¹⁸ C. H. Judd, "The Training of Teachers for a Progressive Educational Program," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 31 (April, 1931), pp. 576-584.

¹⁹ *Adapting the School to Individual Differences*, *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1925), p. 229.

ects, and activity curricula, the emphasis on activities, learn to do by doing, child interests and purposes, and child experiencing, abounds. Witness the rapidly accumulating activity curricula and the professional literature on the subject.

THE STANDARDIZATION MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION

In spite of the fact that even to-day there is no national agreement with regard to the most desirable characteristics to be incorporated into the organization of the first unit of the public-school system and that it may be said that there is no standard elementary school in the United States,²⁰ there have been certain movements under way which have tended to standardize elementary schools in one way or another. States, for example, through their state boards of education or their state departments of education, have established various types of standards for the elementary schools within their respective boundaries. Minnesota initiated the modern program of state elementary standardization in 1895.²¹ Since that date many other states have followed suit, some of them having prepared elaborate printed standards. The chief purposes of state standardization programs have been to improve the schools, to encourage progress through state aid, and to encourage the establishment of larger school units. An analysis by Hill of the printed standards of thirteen states in the South, Middle West, and the Far West showed that thirty-two different aspects of elementary-school organization and administration were stipulated, in one fashion or another, by one or more of the states.²² Length of term, length of the elementary course, number of grades to be assigned to one teacher, minimum and

²⁰ C. H. Judd (Chairman), "Report of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education," *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 34 (University of Chicago, 1927), p. 34.

²¹ J. D. Williams, *State Elementary School Standardization*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Kentucky.

²² H. H. Hill, "How Thirteen States Standardize Their Elementary Schools," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 10 (September, 1932), pp. 60-65.

maximum average daily attendance per teacher, training of teachers, libraries, supplementary readers, equipment, buildings, and grounds were among the specific aspects of organization covered by the standards. In addition to the regulations of state departments of education, the instruction in elementary schools in many states is somewhat controlled by legal prescriptions regarding specific subjects to be taught and the time to be allotted to them.

Among the standardizing influences on elementary education should be mentioned certain developments which have come more specifically from within the profession itself, if such a distinction may be momentarily tolerated for purposes of clarity. Standards for elementary-school buildings, which have had a wide influence on school-plant design and construction, were developed by Strayer and Engelhardt in 1923.²³ Specialized phases of the school plant, such as ventilation,²⁴ plumbing equipment,²⁵ the school theatre,²⁶ and home economics rooms,²⁷ have also been subjected to the standardizing process. Mort and Hilleboe have prepared *A Rating Scale for Elementary School Organization* on the basis of which schools may analyze and evaluate their own practices and compare their ratings with those secured in other cities or schools with reference to such major items as progress and adjustment of pupils, educational activities, school environ-

²³ G. D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, *Standards for Elementary-School Buildings* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923). Revised in 1933.

²⁴ New York Commission on Ventilation, *School Ventilation* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

²⁵ M. W. Thomas, *Public School Plumbing Equipment*, Contributions to Education, No. 282 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928).

²⁶ M. Smith, *The Equipment of the School Theater*, Contributions to Education, No. 421 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

²⁷ M. Brodshaug, *Buildings and Equipment for Home Economics in Secondary Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 502 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932).

ment and morale, and services.²⁸ Mort and Featherstone have developed standards and accounting procedures regarding entrance and promotion practices in city school systems, which give standards (perhaps better called norms) with reference to the percentage of overage, normal-age, and underage children, and progress, for selected grades.²⁹ School surveys, the first ones of which were made about 1910, have given attention to almost every phase of administration, supervision, and instruction.³⁰ The school survey has been primarily an evaluating agency for determining the efficiency of the school and the need for reorganization and remedial measures. Each survey usually criticizes and makes recommendations in terms of generally accepted principles and standards, thus tending to standardize practice even though adaptations are made to the local conditions.

School surveys led directly to the development of some of the standardized tests.³¹ Among the major uses to which tests have been put are determining and evaluating administrative policies, setting up objectives and evaluating methods of teaching, and improving learning.³² From the administrative point of view tests have been used in the classification and promotion of pupils, the recognition of individual differences, remedial teaching, standardization of teachers' marks, supervisory activities, and in curriculum construction and evaluation. In each of these aspects of school work the uses

²⁸ P. R. Mort and G. L. Hilleboe, *A Rating Scale for Elementary School Organization* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

²⁹ P. R. Mort and W. B. Featherstone, *Entrance and Promotion Practices in City School Systems: Standards and Accounting Procedures* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932).

³⁰ H. L. Caswell, *City School Surveys*, Contributions to Education, No. 358 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929).

³¹ Clifford Woody and P. V. Sangren, *Administration of the Testing Program* (World Book Co., 1933), p. 12.

³² "Educational Tests and Their Uses," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 2, No. 1, American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association (Washington, D. C., February, 1933), p. 50.

of standardized tests have enabled comparisons of practices and achievements in one city or school with those of another. In many instances such comparisons resulted, although perhaps inadvertently, in a tendency toward uniformity and standardization.

There is little doubt but that the majority of standardizing influences in elementary education have resulted in the improvement of school work and the general conditions under which elementary schools operate. How far the tendency to standardize elementary-school practices may continue without restricting the work of the school and without developing formalism, complacency, and stultification of progress is not certain. In all events the administrator must be alert to the existence and the character of standardizing influences and the relationships which they bear to the type of organization and the educational program which are desired in a particular city or school.

NEW FRONTIERS FOR EDUCATION

There has been a growing consciousness that there is too wide a gap between the school, the growing child, and American life and that the school is not giving children the kind of training which is needed, not only for effective participation in modern civilization, but for a thorough comprehension of that civilization so that proper direction may be given to subsequent developments in the organization of society.³³ Of course, the exact relationship of the public school to the progress of American civilization has never been very clearly

³³ "Not once from the signing of the American constitution to the present time has the school caught up with American life, and in that time in only our own new schools has the gap between the school and the growing child been closed. For there has persisted for a century and a half a disheartening two-fold gap—on the one hand that between the curriculum of the schools and adult society, and on the other that between the curriculum and the interests and needs of children. To-day, although the gap between the two has been moderately cut down, the hiatus still persists. In more than one hundred years of systematization of the national educational scheme the materials and activities of the

defined. There have been various theories, some of them conflicting, all of them doubtless changing from time to time, as to the peculiar functions of the school.³⁴ At a time when life was much simpler than it now is, the part which the school should play (through its training program) in shaping social organization and consciousness was not questioned seriously. But times have changed. Each human individual lives a much fuller life than did his ancestors of only a generation or two ago. The life of the nation has grown tremendously in complexity. Human history records no expansion like that which has occurred in the United States in the less than 150 years of its existence. From the quantitative point of view the expansion is unparalleled. The qualitative change in the habits, occupations, and interests of the people is even more significant. The United States has developed into *the* industrialized nation, *par excellence*, of the world.

During the time that these profound social, political, and economic changes occurred the school too experienced many changes. Some of these have been sketched in preceding paragraphs. The expansion of the school curriculum is as overwhelming as the expansion in school enrollments or expenditures. The educational system has exhibited a hospitality to every form of human interest that is as broad as the Christian principle of charity.³⁵ Courses of every type and description have been added to meet new demands or to satisfy special group interests. The general trend of this development was to make the curriculum a reflection of various specific and unrelated interests existing outside the school. Within the

school have not only been largely aloof from, indeed foreign to, the institutions and cultures of the American people, but they have failed equally to provide for maximal child growth." Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker, *The Child-Centered School* (copyright 1928 by The World Book Company, Publishers, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York), p. 12.

³⁴ See "The Social-Economic Situation and Education," in *The Educational Frontier*, Yearbook No. XXI of the National Society of College Teachers of Education (University of Chicago Press, 1933). Ch. ii.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, Ch. i, "The Confusion in Present-Day Education."

school the result was a great variety of different subjects, each nicely compartmentalized and serving its own ends, but the entire offering lacking in uniformity of aims and purposes.

As long as the general prosperity of the people held out, no really serious questions were raised. But as unemployment, social unrest, and a financial crisis followed in the wake of the latter months of 1929, the scene changed. The various economic, political, and financial disturbances seemed to shake the very foundations of society. Tax burdens became oppressive. School budgets were slashed. The school program was subjected to the most critical examination that it had ever experienced. What were the causes of the chaotic conditions? What had the schools been doing? Why had not the school trained people to understand more fully and to guide more intelligently the destinies of society? What ought the school to do and what ought to be its relation to social and economic progress? People are wondering seriously whether the public school should become an active agent for social reconstruction.³⁰

These and other pertinent questions were and still are creating paramount challenges to the elementary school. What adjustments must the elementary school make to the social changes now taking place? How shall its curriculum be organized and administered to enable children to obtain the basic training demanded by present needs? What of the reduced budgets, increased size of classes, and reductions in buildings, equipment, and instructional materials? Are these only temporary flurries or must the school undergo fundamental reorganizations?

IMPLICATIONS FOR ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

There were reviewed briefly in the above paragraphs some of the significant developments which directly or indirectly

³⁰ G. S. Counts, *The American Road to Culture* (John Day Co., 1932).

have resulted in shaping the status of the present educational program, or are distinctive characteristics of it, or are new challenges to that program. Other items, such as the downward extension of the elementary school, the influences upon elementary education of the reorganization of secondary schools, the extension of special-class work, and so on, might have been discussed. If the developments indicated by the things which have been reviewed are to be important factors in determining the type of education which is deemed necessary to perpetuate democracy, then it seems pertinent that vital consideration be given to the manner in which schools are organized and administered. Rugg and Shumaker have pointed out the discrepancy which exists between the curriculum of the school and adult society, and between the curriculum and the interests and needs of children.³⁷ Brim, in an article entitled "Research that Prevents Research," calls attention to the fact that much of the so-called scientific procedure in schools actually interferes with the development of a research attitude on the part of the child.³⁸ Brim points out "that the child is by nature an investigator, a research student seeking fuller and more accurate knowledge, an experimenter. Children are born with this much-desired trait; our present schools smother and destroy it." In a truly scientific school the children would be looked upon as would-be finders, not learners of answers. The pupil under this concept of education "must be free to plan, to judge, to make mistakes, to take his own time, to try again in his own way, to conclude and to test his own conclusions." No one but a skillful, well trained teacher—given freedom of action—can create and properly guide the learning situation in which children are encouraged to investigate on their own initiative.

To effect the type of education which is here implied it

³⁷ Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker, *The Child-Centered School* (World Book Co., 1928), p. 12.

³⁸ O. G. Brim, "Research that Prevents Research," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 22 (October, 1930), pp. 161-171.

seems apparent that mere administrative makeshifts without a fundamental consideration of all the factors involved are hardly adequate. If the schools are to be enterprises "in which highly trained teachers are entrusted with the responsibility of providing for wide differences in pupil interests and abilities, it seems difficult to escape the conclusion that educational administration must accord to teachers far greater freedom of action than is implicit in present educational practice. Such freedom would necessarily extend to the selection of content, of methods, and of materials, thus affecting the administration of curricula, time allotments, grade location of materials, promotion practices and many other matters."³⁹ Concepts and practices in supervision, the classification of pupils, the daily classroom programs, the arrangement of buildings⁴⁰ and their equipment will all need to be given careful consideration in the light of the educational program to be administered.

The essential feature is that these various developments in educational theory and practice are creating pertinent questions regarding the organization and the administration of elementary education. At various points in the preceding discussion questions were raised regarding the implications for school organization of particular movements. It seems apparent that if the elementary school is to fulfil properly the functions which have been delegated to it, its organization and administration must be responsive to the findings of educational research and the changing conceptions of modern education. At every turn the administrator must examine critically the organization of his school and the administrative policies and practices applied therein with a view toward the adjustment of the organization so that it may facilitate to the

³⁹ E. O. Melby and H. J. Otto, "Is Administration Keeping Pace with Educational Advancement?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 17 (March, 1931), p. 189.

⁴⁰ A. B. Moehlman, "Relating the School Plant to the Instruction Process," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 4 (August, 1929), pp. 21-24.

maximum the application of modern educational theories and policies.

In the chapters which follow aspects of organization and administration are examined in the light of current theories about elementary education, particularly as they relate to classroom teaching. Whenever available, the results of administrative research are examined for the suggestions they may contain for the analysis of current practice, and for the directions which desirable modifications might take. Specifically, Chapter II aims to present the functions and the scope of elementary education and to define the elementary school as one of the divisions of the American system of public schools. Chapter III treats of the curriculum and instructional materials, the vehicle through which it is hoped pupils will attain the goals set for elementary education. Chapter IV describes the ways in which different types of organization are endeavoring to apply the principles underlying American educational theory in meeting the demands made upon current public elementary education. Chapters V and VI deal with the classification and promotion of pupils. Chapters VII through XVI deal with phases of elementary-school organization and administration, particularly as they relate to the effective application of the educational program.

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and administration has been made flexible in terms of modern educational theory.

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CHAPTER II

THE PURPOSES AND SCOPE OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The program for public education in the United States is administered through a series of units which in a very general way may be termed the elementary, the secondary, and the higher divisions. These three units, joined end to end, are designed to provide for articulated progression for the child from the time he is in need of public-school training until he is prepared, as far as academic study is concerned, to begin his life work.¹ Historically each of these units of the school system originated as the result of forces and under conditions different from those which attended the rise of the other two.² Consequently it is not surprising that great diversity of organization, curriculum offering, and purposes should be found among similar units established in different parts of the nation. Likewise it was perhaps only natural that there should be overlapping, inarticulation, and even conflicts between the scope and functions of contiguous divisions.

During the three centuries which have elapsed since the rudimentary foundations of the American public-school system were laid, many efforts have been made to coördinate more closely the work of the elementary and secondary schools and of the secondary schools and colleges. Some believe that the best way to accomplish full articulation between the former two units is to house them in the same building. This, however, is not practical in most cities in

¹ F. F. Bunker, *Reorganization of the Public School System*, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1916, No. 8, p. 1.

² John Dewey, *The School and Society* (The University of Chicago Press, 1899), pp. 78-84.

which endeavors are made to provide comprehensive curricula for junior and senior high schools. But regardless of what specific plans are adopted to harmonize more closely the work of successive units, it is likely that the elementary school will continue to be distinctive with regard to buildings (in some cities, at least), program of studies, and to some extent in aims and functions.³ Also, there will be large numbers of rural schools in districts which have no local facilities for secondary education. In view of these facts, it would seem pertinent to examine more carefully the scope and purposes of the elementary school in order to have clearly in mind the nature of the institution to which the theories and principles set forth in the preceding chapter are to be applied.

THE OBJECTIVES OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Although the elementary school, the high school, and the college were each originally established for its own particular purpose and with little if any thought of having each of these units contribute its share to a common goal, yet in the process of time something like a common purpose has emerged.⁴ At least it is generally conceded that there are certain ultimate objectives or educational ideals toward which the whole program of public education is aiming.⁵ Some of these purposes

³ "The fact that educational institutions exhibit such strong tendencies toward isolation in their organization makes it evident that some degree of separation of the units within the educational system is inherently necessary. Any effort to force all the units into an artificial combination is contrary to nature and destined to fail. What should be effected is a natural articulation among units which are diverse in purpose and nature and not to be thought of as operating under a single formula or as strictly continuous in the training which they offer to pupils." *The Articulation of the Units of American Education, Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence* (1929), p. 12.

⁴ *Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*, p. 79.

⁵ A summary and discussion of American educational ideals may be found in the *Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence* (1927), Ch. I, also in the *Second Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*, Part III (1924).

are common to all segments of the educational system while others have been designated as the peculiar aims and functions of certain units in the program. Consideration will be given here only to the objectives, general and specific, that apply to the elementary school.⁶

In preparing a tentative statement of the immediate objectives of education at the elementary-school level, the Committee on the Elementary School Unit of the Department of Superintendence (1929) agreed upon two fundamental principles in the light of which they postulated four objectives of elementary education. The two fundamental principles are as follows:

1. One of the specific things which formal education must do is to pass on from each generation to the next whatever worthy benefits the civilization of the past has brought to the public welfare.

2. Through the methods and processes by which this heritage of the past is transmitted from generation to generation, formal education must do its best to secure in the individual the development of all those latent and wholesome powers that are essential to the master ability of using that which civilization has transmitted for the promotion of the public welfare.⁷

Having agreed upon these two general principles, the committee presented the following tentative statement of objectives for the elementary school:

Any proper respect for the rights of the child and the welfare of the community dictates that during this elementary-school period education shall:

1. Advance the child, although by no means perfect him, in his ability to read, write, and speak correctly the English language, and

⁶Formulations of the purposes of the junior high school may be found in the *Fifth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, pp. 20-21, and in other professional treatises on the junior high school.

Formulations of the peculiar aims and functions of the whole period of secondary education may be found in the *Sixth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, and in other professional treatises on the high school.

⁷*Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence (1929), pp. 82-85.

to know and to use intelligently the elementary processes of arithmetic.

2. Advance the child in his ability to know and to observe the laws of physical and mental health and well-being and to appreciate the meaning of life and of nature.

3. Advance the child in his ability to know and to appreciate the geography and history of his own community, state, and nation, and of the world at large; to sense his share in the social, civic, and industrial order of such a democracy as ours, and to meet to the full the obligations which such knowledge and appreciation should engender, to the end that justice, sympathy, and loyalty may characterize his personal and community life.

4. Advance the child in his ability to share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and the useful arts through the pursuit of music, drawing, and literature; of manual training and the household arts as they are related to the three great universal needs of food, clothing, and shelter.

A second recent formulation (1929), known as the "Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education," was prepared by the Committee on Elementary Education of the New York Council of Superintendents.⁸ This Committee agreed that it is the function of the public elementary school to help every child:

1. To understand and practice desirable social relations.
2. To discover and develop his own desirable individual aptitudes.
3. To cultivate the habit of critical thinking.
4. To appreciate and desire worth-while activities.
5. To gain command of the common integrating knowledges and skills.
6. To develop a sound body and normal mental attitudes.

In a somewhat earlier attempt (1924) to postulate the aims and functions of elementary education, Koos analyzed the literature appearing in periodicals and parts of volumes of twenty-two writers who had discussed the objectives of elementary education.⁹ Koos classified the rubrics under which

⁸ "Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education" (Albany, The University of the State of New York, 1929).

⁹ L. V. Koos, "Recent Conceptions of the Aims of Elementary Education," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 24 (March, 1924), pp. 507-515.

the statements of the writers were classified (Table I) into two categories, namely, aims and functions. In the former group were placed those items which pertained to the general or ultimate goals for which elementary instruction should

TABLE I
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF TWENTY-TWO STATEMENTS RECOGNIZING
EACH AIM AND FUNCTION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL *
(After Koos)

Aims and Functions Calling for Values in	Number	Per Cent
1. Training common to all	8	36
2. Preparation for life's needs	10	45
3. Civic-social responsibility	18	82
4. Morality	9	41
5. Domestic responsibility	5	23
6. Leadership	2	9
7. Health	13	59
8. Recreational and aesthetic participation	13	59
9. Practical efficiency	11	50
10. Democratic education	2	9
11. Recognition of individual differences	8	36
12. Exploration and guidance	5	23
13. Preparatory education	3	14
14. Adaptation to child's nature and interests	12	55
15. Training in fundamental processes	15	68
16. Intellectual training	5	23
17. Economy of time	2	9

* The years of publication of the materials used in this analysis ranged from 1912 to 1923. The median year is 1916

strive. The functions were interpreted to mean the more proximate aims. They are for the most part in the nature of conditions under which elementary education must go forward the better to achieve the "ultimate" goals.

In summarizing his study Koos points out that "among the most frequently recurring types of expression found in the literature dealing with the purposes of elementary education are those which insist that it *provide at least that portion of*

training which should be common to all and that it prepare for the needs of life. The canvass made, however, indicates that, as a group, the authors consulted are not content merely with statements of aims as comprehensive as these, since they so generally propose additional aims calling for training for *social-civic responsibility, health, recreational and related participation, and practical efficiency.* In order that the attainment of these ultimate goals may be accelerated, they propose also the performance of such functions as *recognizing individual differences, affording training in the fundamental processes, and adapting education to the child's nature and interests.* Other aims and functions are suggested, but less frequently than those named."¹⁰

If one were to generalize upon the three formulations of objectives which have been reported, one could conclude, without doing injustice to the individuals and groups who contributed, that all agree that the development of *civic-social-moral responsibility* is one of the main aims of elementary education. In order to perpetuate true democracy in which all persons, individually and collectively, will assume active responsibility in an intelligent manner to promote public welfare, it is essential that each individual be equipped with the knowledges, understandings, and appreciations which will lead to the attainment of correct social relations. The school will thus continue to insure the pupil's practice of such virtues as trustworthiness, reliability, obedience, kindness, courtesy, loyalty, and honesty.

A second aim in which the three series of statements concur is *physical and mental health.* Few will deny that the elementary school should make a distinct contribution in providing the child with essential health knowledge and effective health habits. It is also essential that the school contribute towards the development of normal, wholesome mental attitudes.

The third aim common to the three formulations is the

¹⁰ L. V. Koos, *op. cit.*, p. 513.

development of those interests and appreciations which will lead to the choice of *worth-while activities during leisure time*. The increasing significance of this aim may be inferred from the increasing amount of leisure time which the present industrial organization is providing for practically all classes of society.

Among the remaining rubrics, found in one or two but not all three of the tabulations, are such items as "training which should be common to all," "preparing for life's needs," "common essentials," and "practical efficiency." It is believed, however, that each of these is implied, in part or in whole, in one or more of the three common aims stated above. Life needs, broadly conceived, require the intelligent practice of desirable physical and mental health habits, worthy civic and social participation, and worthy use of leisure. In order to participate effectively in the three latter types of activities it is necessary to have command of certain common, integrating knowledges and skills, to be able to execute effectively unspecialized practical activities, and to exercise critical thinking at all times.

To enable the school to make its maximum contribution to the attainment of these aims,¹¹ it is desirable that one recognize fully the individual interests and aptitudes of pupils so that each person may develop to a maximum those abilities which will help him to find his most useful place in a highly organized social order. The school will also provide training in the basic social arts which are our heritage. This latter group of purposes may be looked upon as the *functions* of elementary education.

COMPARISON OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PURPOSES WITH THE AIMS AND FUNCTIONS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, there have emerged certain purposes which may be looked upon as the

¹¹ Obviously many agencies, other than the school, contribute towards the education of youth.

ultimate goals of the whole program of public education in this country. Certain of these objectives are common, at least in some degree, to all the divisions of the system of public education while others, either *in toto* or as more specific phases of broader objectives, have been designated as the peculiar contributions of certain units of the school system.¹² Consideration will be given here only to a comparison between the purposes of the elementary school and those of its nearest neighbor, the secondary school.

After making a critical analysis of several postulations of the objectives of secondary education, Koos proposed the following as a summary statement of the aims and functions of secondary education: ¹³

Aims

1. Civic-social-moral responsibility.
2. Recreational and æsthetic participation and appreciation.
3. Occupational efficiency (inclusive of preparation for higher institutions for those planning to continue their education).
4. Physical efficiency.

Functions

5. Achieving a democratic secondary education.
6. Recognizing individual differences.
7. Providing for exploration and guidance.
8. Recognizing the adolescent nature of pupils.
9. Imparting knowledge and skills in the fundamental processes.
10. Fostering transfer of training (with guarded acceptance).

Comparing these concepts of the aims and functions of secondary education with the formulation for elementary education, one may say that both periods are concerned with the development of civic-social-moral responsibility, physical and mental health, and recreational and æsthetic participation and appreciation. Such differences as exist in these three aims lie in the manner in which progress is made toward their attainment and in the instructional materials which are used.

¹² L. V. Koos, *The American Secondary School* (Ginn and Co., 1927), p. 195.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 167.

Both of these factors are conditioned by the ages, abilities, and previous educational attainments of the pupils who attend the two types of institutions. It may be said in passing that it has generally been considered the purpose of the lower school to make that contribution to each of the three common aims named above which has been termed "the common essentials." The absence of an exact determination of the extent of this contribution has created a moot question which has been one factor in the establishment of the junior high school. More will be said of this at a later point.

The difference between the aims of the elementary and the secondary school is noted in the preparation for occupational efficiency. It is not likely that the elementary school will be concerned with direct preparation for occupations. It is rather the aim of the elementary school to give that background of training necessary for success in all walks of life. This training will no doubt include preparation in a large variety of unspecialized practical activities which some writers have posited as a peculiar aim of the elementary school.

Comparison of the functions of elementary and secondary education is complicated somewhat by the uncertainty as to the year of schooling or the school grade which is to mark the beginning of secondary education. Owing to a variety of factors, for the discussion of which space cannot be provided here,¹⁴ criticisms were being raised against the traditional eight- or nine-grade elementary school. To alleviate the weaknesses of the older type of organization for public education, a new educational unit, the junior high school, has found its way into a number of city school systems. To this new unit have been ascribed the peculiar functions of a greater retention of pupils, economy of time, recognition of individual differences, exploration and guidance, beginnings of vocational

¹⁴See F. F. Bunker, *Reorganization of the Public School System*, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1916, No. 8, Chs. iii and iv, and W. A. Smith, *The Junior High School* (The Macmillan Co., 1930), Chs. i-iii.

education, recognizing the nature of the child at adolescence, providing the conditions for better teaching, securing better scholarship, and improving the disciplinary situation and socializing opportunities.¹⁵ The wording of some of the above peculiar functions of the junior high school implies that this new unit is to improve certain characteristics of the upper grades of the eight- or nine-grade elementary school. Also, some of the functions of the junior high school are synonymous with those for the entire period of secondary education. Although at the present time the junior high school has not found universal acceptance or adoption, nor has there been common agreement among those who have adopted it as to the school grades to be included, the movement for its establishment has gone far enough so that one may assume that in the future the beginning of secondary education will not be postponed until the eighth or ninth school year. In view of these considerations we may now proceed to compare the functions of elementary and secondary education.

Only two of the functions tabulated above seem to be common, at least to some extent, to the periods of elementary and secondary education, namely, "recognition of individual differences" and "imparting fundamental knowledges and skills." For the lower school the problem of providing adequately for individual differences, as discussed in Chapter I, is challenging the best thought in the field of elementary school organization and administration. This problem is of no less importance in secondary education but assumes a somewhat different rôle as the institution assumes new functions, such as "achieving a democratic secondary education," "providing for exploration and guidance" (which is complementary to providing occupational efficiency), and "recognizing the adolescent nature of pupils." On the other hand, the burden of training in the fundamental processes must fall heavier on the elementary school. Just what proportion of that train-

¹⁵ L. V. Koos, *The Junior High School* (Ginn and Co., 1927), Chs. ii and iii.

ing shall be delegated to the elementary unit is a relatively undecided issue. It is one of the factors which must be considered in determining the relationship of the elementary unit to its nearest neighbor in the secondary-school period. Reference to this relationship will be made at a later point.

THE YEARS OF SCHOOLING ENCOMPASSED BY ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

After the foregoing consideration of the aims and functions of elementary education it would seem opportune to survey the years of schooling considered necessary for the attainment of those objectives. A brief historical sketch of the development of the elementary school may be helpful in clarifying the issues which are involved in determining the desirable length of the elementary-school period.

The American elementary school began its history when the early immigrants settled this country.¹⁶ The fact that many of the colonists came for religious freedom, together with the nature and conditions of pioneer life, brought about a very close relationship between the church, the school,¹⁷ and the civil government of the towns.¹⁸ The groups of immigrants who made their homes in the various colonies repre-

¹⁶ The colonial legislature of Massachusetts passed a law in 1642 which stated that all children should be educated. See: G. H. Martin, *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System* (D. Appleton and Co., 1898), p. 14.

¹⁷ "The churches no doubt served the place of school-houses in the early days, and the clergyman, so far as he was able, filled the double office of preacher and teacher." J. P. Wickersham, *A History of Education in Pennsylvania* (Lancaster, Pennsylvania, Inquirer Publishing Co., 1886), p. 15.

¹⁸ "The governing authorities (in New England settlements) for church and civil affairs were usually the same. When acting as church officers they were known as elders and deacons; when acting as civil or town officers they were known as selectmen. The State, as represented in the colonial legislature or town meeting, was clearly the servant of the Church, and existed in large part for religious ends." E. P. Cubberley, *State School Administration* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927), p. 4.

sented a variety of denominational interests and attitudes toward education.¹⁹

As a result of the early endeavors of the different religious sects, there were laid those basic foundations in education which soon began to characterize the educational policies of the respective colonies. Through a natural growth and development, the principles underlying the attitudes towards education became rather fixed within each colony or group of colonies as time progressed. Thus the various colonies and later the states developed distinctive types of programs for elementary education which influenced materially the subsequent development of elementary-school organization in different sections of the country.²⁰

Limitations of space preclude a comprehensive discussion of the history of the elementary school and its organization during the past three centuries. For detailed descriptions of the historical development of the lower school the student is referred to other sources.²¹ Suffice it to say here that in certain

¹⁹ E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919), pp. 20-21.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 15.

²¹ E. W. Knight, *Education in the United States* (Ginn and Co., 1929); and *Public Education in the South* (Ginn and Co., 1922).

G. H. Martin, *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System* (D. Appleton and Co., 1898).

F. F. Bunker, *Reorganization of the Public School System*, U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1916, No. 8.

E. P. Cubberley, *op. cit.*

J. P. Wickersham, *A History of Education in Pennsylvania* (Lancaster, Pennsylvania, Inquirer Publishing Co., 1886).

S. C. Parker, *History of Modern Elementary Education* (Ginn and Co., 1912).

W. H. Small, *Early New England Schools* (Ginn and Co., 1914).

Harlan Updegraff, *The Origin of the Moving School in Massachusetts*, Contributions to Education, No. 17 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1908).

J. F. Reigart, *The Lancastrian System of Instruction in the Schools of New York City*, Contributions to Education, No. 81 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1916).

colonies, particularly those in New England, the dominant motives for education in the early period found expression in the establishment of preparatory schools²² whose chief function was to prepare men for the university.²³ These preparatory schools, known as Latin grammar schools and modeled after the Latin schools of England, were in reality secondary schools. Admission to them was restricted to boys who previously had had some rudimentary training in reading and arithmetic. Very little information is available regarding the organization of elementary education during the seventeenth century. Such rudimentary training as was given was provided largely in charity schools, endowed free schools, and the plantation or "old field schools" in the South,²⁴ in parochial schools in the middle Atlantic states,²⁵ and through private instruction in the New England colonies.²⁶ Usually the private or partially publicly supported schools in New England which gave this basic training were called "reading and writing" schools. Reference to Figure 3, which has been adapted from Cubberley, will show the ages of pupils usually taught in the reading and writing schools.

As far as the development of schools is concerned, the seventeenth century has been characterized as essentially a

²² "The English colonists had scarcely set foot in the New World before they began planning for the education of their children. Within eight years after the founding of Boston a college with a system of preparatory schools was established, and within seventeen years the foundation, in theory at least, of our entire American public school system was laid." F. F. Bunker, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

²³ "The only apparent motive, therefore, a parent had in sending his son to the one public school in Boston was his desire to educate him for the ministry." T. D. Appollonio, *Boston Public Schools, Past and Present* (Boston, Wright and Potter, 1923), p. 18.

²⁴ E. W. Knight, *Public Education in the South*, p. 40.

²⁵ J. P. Wickersham, *op. cit.*, p. 95.

²⁶ "Private schools of one kind or another existed from the earliest times. The first dame schools were private; so were the schools that ministers often kept to prepare boys for college." W. H. Small, *op. cit.*, p. 311.

period of transplanting to this country the types of schools which had prevailed in Europe. There was little or no attempt at adaptation to conditions peculiar to America until after about 1750. At this time a variety of factors, such as the waning of religious interest and the forces which aided in bringing about the disintegration of the New England towns, were operative to create the demand for a more practical type of education than that afforded by the Latin grammar schools.

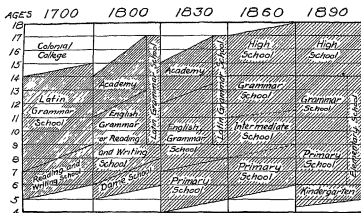


FIG. 3. EVOLUTION OF THE ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC-SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Adapted from E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, p. 99. Reproduced by permission of, and arrangement with, Houghton Mifflin Co.

In response to this popular demand the character of the schools changed so that by 1800 (Fig. 3) schools known as the English grammar school and the Academy had sprung into existence. Subsequent influences during the nineteenth century brought about material alterations in the character, purposes, and organization of the institution which was to provide that basic training for "all the children of all the people." But by 1890 an elementary-school course to be completed at

age thirteen or fourteen had been adopted quite uniformly in all parts of the United States.²⁷ In the South this course had been shaped into a seven-year program; in the New England states a nine-year elementary school had become the predominant type; while the better known eight-year elementary school was favored in other sections of the country.

The institutional origin of the elementary unit which became the prevailing American type is in controversy. Some writers, as Bunker and Judd, are of the opinion that we borrowed from Europe²⁸ the form, content, and methods which had proved effective in educating large numbers of pupils there.²⁹ Whether these statements are true or whether, as Cubberley points out, we evolved a series of purely native American school systems is not of prime importance at this time.³⁰ The essential fact is that the eight-year school *became* the prevailing type. From rudimentary and diverse begin-

²⁷ "In theory there is a very considerable approximation to uniformity in respect to the upper limit of the elementary course, or, what amounts to the same thing, in respect to the line of demarcation between the grammar- and high-school courses. In general it is intended so to frame the elementary course, as to its stages and the amount of work to be done, that the average pupil may complete it at the age of fourteen, provided the system of instruction is conducted with sound judgment and efficiency." J. D. Philbrick, *City School Systems in the United States*, Circulars of Information of the Bureau of Education, No. 1 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1885), p. 20.

²⁸ F. F. Bunker, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

²⁹ "The prospects of advance toward a strictly democratic educational system were very bright as a result of the growth, in the early years of the nineteenth century, of the American academy and of the district school. But in the midst of this advance, in the middle of the last century our leaders carried us back toward medievalism by borrowing from the least democratic nation in Europe one of its fundamental institutions. They brought to America the Prussian common school. The eight-year elementary school of the United States is a transplanted institution. It does not belong to us, and it is not in harmony with our evolution. It has acted as an obstacle to the growth of a unified school system." C. H. Judd, *The Evolution of a Democratic School System* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918), p. 3.

³⁰ E. P. Cubberley, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

nings, it gradually developed, about 1850, into a graded elementary school, that is, an institution in which the work of each year is called a "grade" and pupils are segregated into classes according to their ages and attainments.⁸¹ Just why eight years should have been decided upon as the requisite number is difficult to answer satisfactorily. The question is particularly difficult to answer in view of the fact that a formulation of the specific and concrete aims and functions of elementary education has never been made.⁸² As was pointed out in the discussion of objectives of elementary education, the task which seems to be the peculiar function of the elementary school is to give training in the "common essentials" or "fundamental knowledges, skills, abilities, attitudes and appreciations" and "unspecialized practical activities." Since no exact determination of what constitutes the "common essentials" has been made, it is no wonder that the profession and the public began to question the validity of the eight-year elementary program. In fact, questions that have been raised regarding the most desirable ages for the beginning and the termination of formal elementary schooling have led to many modifications of the traditional eight-year program.

As early as 1888 the elementary-school course which required eight or nine years for its completion was challenged.⁸³ Discussion of the proper length of elementary- and secondary-school courses and their relationship to college work led to the appointment in 1893 of the Committee of Ten on Economy of Time in Education. Almost continuously since then, the question of a shorter elementary-school course has been a live

⁸¹ In 1847, as principal of the Quincy Grammar School of Boston, John D. Philbrick organized, after the German model, what was probably the first city graded school in America. See: F. F. Bunker, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

⁸² J. L. Horn, *Principles of Elementary Education* (The Century Co., 1920), pp. 61 ff.

⁸³ F. F. Bunker, *op. cit.*, Ch. iii.

issue.³⁴ Committee reports were being submitted at intervals from 1893 to 1913.³⁵ Although the deliberations of these committees and their reports dealt primarily with aspects of secondary education, certain elements of each of these reports related to problems associated with the organization of the upper grades of the elementary school. The reports of the committees gave special attention to the question of including Grades 7 and 8 in the secondary-school period.

The question of the desirable length of the elementary-school course finally led to an investigation, begun in 1925, in which careful examination was made of the relation of administrative units, the length of the school day and the school year, age of admission to the kindergarten and first grade, enrollments, subject offering by grades, etc., in 610 school systems in the United States. A comparison of the achievement of pupils in Grades 7 and 8 in selected seven-year and eight-year elementary schools in the United States and Canada was also made. "By way of general summary of the whole study," the Commission concluded, "it may safely be asserted that

³⁴ Otis Ashmore, "The Elimination of the Grammar School," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1900), pp. 424-426.

J. M. Greenwood, "Seven-Year Course of Study for Ward-School Pupils," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1903), p. 247.

J. M. Greenwood, "A Seven-Year Course for Elementary Pupils," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1907), pp. 290-294.

E. W. Lyttle, "Report of the Committee on Six-Year Course of Study," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1908), pp. 625-628.

H. S. Weet, "Shortening the Course," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1914), pp. 269-271.

C. H. Judd, "Debate: The Best Organization for American Schools Is a Plan Which Shall Divide these Schools into Six Years of Elementary Training and Six Years of Secondary Training," *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1916), pp. 917-925.

³⁵ For a summary of these reports, see W. A. Smith, *The Junior High School* (The Macmillan Co., 1930), Ch. iii.

ample evidence is present in the experience of many school systems of the United States and Canada that elementary education of a satisfactory degree of richness of content can be provided in seven grades. It is shown that pupils can be trained through a seven-grade curriculum to the point where they can efficiently pursue high-school work."³²

It is difficult to express in exact terms the nature or the amount of reorganization which may have resulted from the influences exerted by such investigations and reports as have been referred to above. At any rate, the work of the upper-elementary grades was reorganized in various ways. As early as 1900 departmental teaching was introduced into the schools of New York City³³ and separately organized junior high schools were established in Columbus, Ohio, and Berkeley, California, in 1909. Los Angeles followed in 1911. Since then the number of reorganized high schools has increased rapidly. In 1930 there were reported 5,619 reorganized high schools (Table II), 4,976 of which have incorporated one or more of the upper-elementary grades into the secondary-school program. A subsequent tabulation (Table III) shows that in over half (54 per cent) of 738 cities with a population of 10,000 or over the elementary-school period consists of less than seven grades. It is of interest to note that in fourteen systems the lower school concludes with the fifth grade.

At this point it should be remembered that many school systems in the southern states and a few in the northern states have operated a seven-grade elementary school for a long time. Among the outstanding examples of this practice is Kansas City, Missouri, which organized its elementary schools on the seven-year basis in 1867. Several attempts have been made to compare the effectiveness of the seven-grade school with

³² C. H. Judd (Chairman), "Report of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education," *Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 34* (University of Chicago, 1927), p. 11.

³³ V. E. Kilpatrick, *Departmental Teaching in Elementary Schools* (The Macmillan Co., 1908), p. 5.

TABLE II

NUMBER AND TYPES OF REORGANIZED HIGH SCHOOLS BY BIENNIUMS,
1922 TO 1930 *

Type of School †	1922	1924	1926	1928	1930‡
Total.....	1,566	2,548	3,544	4,885	5,619
Junior.....	387	879	1,127	1,566	1,787
Senior.....	91	181	414	632	643
Junior-senior.....	1,088	1,383	1,407	1,486	3,189
Undivided (5-year and 6-year).....		105	596	1,201	

* From C. A. Jessen, in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1928-1930*, Advance pages, Vol. I, Ch. iii, "Secondary Education," p. 2.

† It may be of interest to note the relationships which total enrollments in reorganized schools bear to total enrollment in public high schools. In 1922, 23 per cent of all secondary school pupils were registered in reorganized schools; in 1924, the percentage had risen to 30; in 1926, to 41, in 1928 to 46; and in 1930 to 49. It is evident that in 1930 the reorganized schools, comprising slightly more than one-fourth of the high schools of the nation, enrolled nearly one-half of the pupils.

‡ Data for 1930 from F. T. Spalding and I. O. Frederick, "The Junior High School Movement in the Year 1930," *School Review*, Vol. 41 (January 1933), pp. 15-26.

TABLE III

UPPER-GRADE LIMITS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 738 CITIES HAVING
POPULATIONS OF 10,000 AND OVER *

POPULATION OF CITIES	NUMBER OF CITIES REPORTING UPPER-GRADE LIMIT OF:				PER CENT OF CITIES REPORTING AN UPPER-GRADE LIMIT OF:			
	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7 or 8†	Total	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7 or 8†	Total
100,000 and over	4	48	16	68	6	70.5	23.5	100
30,000 to 100,000	3	117	63	183	1.7	63.9	34.4	100
10,000 to 30,000.	7	218	262	487	1.4	44.8	53.8	100
Total.....	14	383	341	738	2	52	46	100

* From Bess Goodykoontz and others, in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1928-1930*, Advance pages, Vol. I, Ch. ii, "Elementary Education," p. 5.

† Includes records from junior-high-school organizations which begin with Grade 8 and from cities reporting only a senior-high-school organization.

the eight-grade units.³⁸ In addition to the Report of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education already referred to, Shouse has produced evidence to show that the graduates of the seven-grade schools in Kansas City saved on the average 0.83 of a year without any sacrifice in efficiency as compared to the graduates of eight-grade schools and that seven-grade graduates ranked on a par with eight-grade graduates on standardized tests and marks in high school and college.³⁹ Mayfield, who compared the progress in the University of Chicago High School of 478 pupils who had graduated from the seven-grade University Elementary School and of 711 pupils who had graduated from the regular eight-grade elementary schools, found that the seven-grade graduates had a slight advantage in home background, were on a par with the eight-grade graduates in intelligence quotients, graduated younger, received a slightly higher percentage of superior marks, and a larger percentage of them completed high school.⁴⁰ The cumulative evidence of these and other studies seems to indicate that the graduates of seven-grade elementary schools suffer no marked disadvantages in academic achievements and in subsequent educational work.

Such data as have been gathered suggest the unquestioned conclusion that the movement for reorganization of the upper-elementary grades and their inclusion in the program of secondary education has received general acceptance in the United States. One may expect that, as local conditions permit, a rapidly increasing number of elementary units will contain less than the traditional eight grades. Although the

³⁸ For a complete summary of these studies, see: "School Organization," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 1, No. 3 (June, 1931), pp. 177-183.

³⁹ J. L. Shouse, *A Study of the 7-4-2 Plan of Organization in Kansas City, Missouri*, unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1928.

⁴⁰ J. C. Mayfield, *A Comparative Study of Two Groups of Pupils in the University of Chicago*, unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1928.

predominant tendency, where reorganization has taken place, is to conclude the lower school with the sixth grade, it is very problematical whether such action can be fully justified in terms of an exact definition, based on scientific facts, of the contributions which the elementary school is to make to the ultimate goals of education in a democracy in which social and economic life is changing rapidly. Perhaps, as Horn points out, we have been thinking in terms of years rather than in terms of specific tasks technically defined, and have set the upper limit of elementary education by subtracting two from eight. Instead of outlining the task and then determining how much time the average child will require for its accomplishment, we have arbitrarily set the period of duration and then tried to find tasks enough to fill the time.⁴¹ It is hoped that some time in the not-too-distant future we may be able to break away from the hide-bound shackles which the concept of "school grades" has placed upon us and to think in true pedagogic terms which have been derived intelligently through objective study of children as groups and as individuals.

Consideration of the years of school encompassed by elementary education naturally includes treatment, not only of the upper limits of the elementary unit, but also of the lower limits, that is, the time when school training shall begin. Past practice has assumed that the school's contribution to the training of children shall begin at about age six, that is, at the beginning of Grade 1. Much diversity of practice exists as to the minimum age of admission to the first grade. Data from 351 cities ranging in population from 2,500 to 25,000 in thirty-one states (Table IV) show that some districts permit pupils to enter Grade 1 at a chronological age of five years whereas others postpone entrance until age six. The median age of admission is 5.67 years. Although some cities apply such criteria as mental age, physical or social age, and kindergarten attendance, the majority (Table V) admit on the basis

⁴¹ J. L. Horn, *Principles of Elementary Education* (The Century Co., 1928), p. 65.

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS ACCORDING TO THE LOWEST AGE AT WHICH PUPILS ARE ADMITTED TO THE FIRST GRADE, 1929 *

Lowest Age of Entrance, in Years, into First Grade	DISTRICTS WHICH MAINTAIN KINDERGARTENS		DISTRICTS WHICH DO NOT MAINTAIN KINDERGARTENS		TOTAL	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
5.0.....	15	8	10	6	25	7
5.5.....	49	25	44	28	93	27
5.75.....	68	35	60	38	128	36
6.0.....	62	32	43	28	105	30
Total.....	194	100	157	100	351	100

Median age of admission to Grade One—5.67 years

* From H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, p. 18.

TABLE V

BASES ON WHICH PUPILS ARE ADMITTED TO GRADE 1, 1929 *

BASES FOR ADMISSION	SCHOOL DISTRICTS †	
	Number	Per Cent
Chronological age.....	253	67
Chronological age and kindergarten attendance....	43	11
Chronological and mental age.....	31	8
Kindergarten attendance.....	17	4
Mental age.....	14	4
Mental age and kindergarten attendance.....	6	2
Chronological and physical age.....	3	1
Physical age.....	3	1
Chronological, mental, and physical ages.....	2	1
Chronological age, mental age, and kindergarten attendance.....	1	.5
Mental age, physical age, and kindergarten attendance.....	1	.5
Total.....	374	100

* From H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, p. 19.

† In cities ranging in population from 2,500 to 25,000 in thirty-one states.

of chronological age. Obviously when children reach the minimum age established by law or by local school-boards they must be accepted by the school. Most school systems, however, have established permissive minimum ages for admission which are lower than the legal lower limit. Consequently compulsory-school-entrance ages (Table VI) cannot be ac-

TABLE VI
PUBLIC SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AGES IN THE UNITED STATES,
MARCH, 1932 *

AGE ATTENDANCE REQUIRED— REGULAR SCHOOL		AGE ATTENDANCE PERMISSIVE			
		Kindergarten		Regular School	
Age Span †	Number of States	Age Span ‡	Number of States	Age Span †	Number of States
6—16	1	None specified	11	None specified	3
6—18	2	3 —6	3	4—20	1
7—14	3	4 —6	20	5—21	9
7—15	2	4 —7	3	6—18	4
7—16	19	4½—6	1	6—19	1
7—17	4	5 —6	1	6—20	1
7—18	1	5 —8	1	6—21	25
8—14	3	5 and over	5	7—21	1
8—16	12	Under 6	2	Over 15	1
8—17	1	Not more than 6	1	Over 21	1
8—18	1	Boards may establish	1	6 and over	1
				5 and over	1
Total	49§		49§		49§

* Adapted from W. W. Kaesecker, *Public School Attendance Ages in Various States*, U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Circular No. 10* (March, 1930). Data have been brought up-to-date to March, 1932.

† The part-time, continuation, or evening-school provisions for the upper ages which are specified in state laws are omitted from this table.

‡ Ages shown apply where kindergartens have been or may be established. In some states establishment of kindergartens is permissive and in some states mandatory under certain conditions. A few states have kindergarten laws which do not designate attendance ages, in which case the ages are usually determined by local school authorities.

§ Includes District of Columbia.

cepted as the current lower limits for elementary education.

During the past half century new forces and new scientific knowledge about children have created influences which have tended to extend the elementary school downward to children younger than those usually admitted to Grade 1. If one traces back in the history of education one finds that only a few centuries ago the home assumed full, or almost full, responsibility for the training of children. "As a matter of fact children have not always been sent to school. For countless generations the parental instinct for nurture sufficed for all the purposes of inducting the child into the simply organized social group in which he was to live, into the few tasks which he was to perform."⁴² But as the complexity of social and economic life increased there arose a need for types of training which the home was not equipped to provide. Consequently when pupils attained an adequate age—chronologically, socially, physically, and mentally—so they could be sent to outside training centers, they were sent to school. Perhaps as a result a formal curriculum of subjects (reading, writing, and arithmetic for the teaching of which the home was not equipped) was provided which pupils of age six and seven were expected to master. Horn points out that "the school has probably put the cart before the horse, determining first the age of admission and discovering later what the central group in an unselected aggregation of six-year-olds were capable of acquiring."⁴³ Thus the conventional first-grade curriculum came into existence.

The essential point in the preceding paragraph was not to call attention to the manner by which the conventional first-grade curriculum came into being, but rather the fact that the school was looked upon as a place in which children received such training as could not be given in the home. The increasing amount of scientific knowledge about the education of young children (ages two to five) and the increasing em-

⁴² J. L. Horn, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 78.

phasis of the importance of proper training during these early formative years have brought forth a demand for newer forms of skilled instruction which the home again is not prepared to give. Hence the demand for extension of the services of the school to younger age groups.

At first this need was met in part by private kindergartens and nurseries.⁴⁴ Gradually the profession and the public began to see the values which might be derived if the kindergarten were made a part of the public-school program.⁴⁵ From meager beginnings in St. Louis in 1870 the kindergarten, as a part of the public-school offering, has grown continuously. In 1928 approximately one-third of 3,428 cities of all population sizes (Table VII) operated kindergartens. In spite of the fact that kindergarten enrollments increased over 60 per cent during the decade from 1918 to 1928 (Table VIII), there are still many cities, especially in the lower population groups (Table VII), in which this introductory unit does not prevail.⁴⁶ One must bear in mind, too, that in some cities in

⁴⁴ For a comprehensive treatment of the movement for pre-school and parental education, see the *Twenty-Eighth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Co., 1929).

⁴⁵ "When the kindergarten was introduced into America, it persisted as a philanthropy long before it was accepted as an organic part of the educational system . . . Philanthropy turned to the public schools asking them to include the kindergarten as a part of their organization. The opening wedge was made by gaining permission to use vacant rooms in public schools. The salaries of teachers and other running expenses were still defrayed by philanthropic agencies that were convinced of the educational as well as the philanthropic value of the kindergarten. The next step was to persuade boards of education to accept full responsibility. Thus in time the kindergarten became a part of many school systems." *Preschool and Parental Education, Twenty-Eighth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education (1929), pp. 247-248.

⁴⁶ "While the per cent of increase in kindergarten enrollments may seem to be small in size, it is well to know that there has been no increase, and, in fact, a slight decrease in the enrollments for the early elementary grades during this ten-year period." Mary D. Davis, *Kindergarten-Primary Education*, U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1930, No. 30, p. 8.

TABLE VII

LOWER GRADE LIMITS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 3,428 CITIES AND TOWNS, 1928 *

SIZE OF CITIES	Number of Cities Reporting Lower-Grade Limits of			Per Cent of Cities Reporting Lower-Grade Limits of:		
	Kinder- garten	Grade 1	Total	Kinder- garten	Grade 1	Total
100,000 or more	61	4	65	93.85	6.15	100
50,000 to 100,000 . . .	134	36	170	78.82	21.18	100
10,000 to 50,000 . . .	229	166	395	57.97	42.03	100
2,500 to 10,000	359	579	938	38.27	61.73	100
Below 2,500	325	1,535	1,860	17.47	82.53	100
Total	1,108	2,320	3,428	32.32	67.68	100

* From Bess Goodykoonts and others, in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1928-1930*. Advance pages, Ch. II, "Elementary Education."

TABLE VIII

ENROLLMENTS IN KINDERGARTEN AND ELEMENTARY GRADES FOR 1918 AND 1928 *

Grades	Enrollments		Percentage Distribution Among Grades		Per Cent of Change for Decade, Increase (+) or Decrease (-)
	1918	1928	1918	1928	
Kindergarten	433,377	695,490	2.29	3.26	+60.5
1	4,323,170	4,171,037	22.85	19.61	- 3.5
2	2,607,727	2,816,540	13.79	13.23	+ 8.0
3	2,524,215	2,661,977	13.34	12.51	+ 5.5
4	2,440,871	2,632,474	12.90	12.36	+ 7.5
5	2,128,086	2,435,466	11.25	11.46	+14.4
6	1,838,770	2,243,443	9.71	10.55	+22.1
7	1,482,675	2,021,636	7.84	9.55	+36.35
8	1,140,804	1,590,354	6.03	7.47	+39.4
Total	18,919,695	21,268,417	100.00	100.00	+12.4

* From Bess Goodykoonts and others, in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1928-1930*, Advance pages, Ch. II, "Elementary Education," p. 9.

which the educational policy governing the school offering has been extended to include the kindergarten, inadequate finances, inadequate housing facilities, etc., may prevent the administration from making this introductory training accessible to all pupils of requisite age. This latter statement is amply demonstrated in Tables IX and X. Also, for those children

TABLE IX
ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL BUILDINGS HOUSING KINDERGARTENS
IN 160 CITIES *

POPULATION	PER CENT OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL BUILDINGS THAT HOUSE KINDERGARTENS	
	Median	Range
100,000 and more.....	61.5	16—100
30,000 to 100,000.....	91.5	13—100
10,000 to 30,000.....	83.0	5—100
Fewer than 10,000.....	100.0	20—100

* Cities of all population sizes in forty-one states. Data from *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1926-1928*, p. 291.

TABLE X
COMPARISON OF KINDERGARTEN ENROLLMENT WITH FIRST-GRADE
ENROLLMENT IN 160 CITIES *

POPULATION	PER CENT OF KINDERGARTEN ENROLLMENT TO FIRST-GRADE ENROLLMENT	
	Median	Range
100,000 and more.....	48.0	15.0—127
30,000 to 100,000.....	75.5	23.0—210†
10,000 to 30,000.....	70.5	8.0—126
Fewer than 10,000	70.5	.04—384

* Cities of all population sizes in forty-one states. Data from *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1926-1928*, p. 291.

† Cities having a decidedly larger enrollment in kindergarten than in the first grade probably have a two-year kindergarten program.

TABLE XI
TYPES OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION IN 620 CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1929-1930 *

POPULATION: SIZE OF CITIES †	NUMBER AND PER CENT OF CITIES			NUMBER OF CITIES HAVING EACH TYPE OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION					
	Num- ber of Cities	Per Cent Total Num- ber of Cities	Reporting General Supervisors	Combined			Separate		
				Kinder- garten Ele- mentary in Two Units (K-3) (4-6)	Elementary		Kinder- garten and Ele- mentary in Three Units (K) (1-3) (4-6)	Kinder- garten and Ele- mentary in Three Units (K) (1-3) (4-6)	Kinder- garten and Ele- mentary in Three Units (K) (1-3) (4-6)
					As One Unit (1-6)	As Two Units (1-3) (4-6)			
100,000 and over	67	99	65	97	10	7	16‡	4	5
30,000 to 100,000	153	82	126	82	31	21	24	4	6
10,000 to 30,000	337	65	175	52	10	50	12	1	4
2,500 to 10,000...	983	48	234	26	12	61	31	8	8
Total	1,540	77	620	40	42	134	56	23	21
								95	46

* From Bess Goodykoontz and others, in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1928-1930*. Advance pages, Ch. ii, "Elementary Education," p. 48.

† 1920 census.

‡ Includes one unit of nursery school through the sixth grade.

§ Includes one unit of (nursery school-2) (3-6).

who are able to attend, the kindergarten experience varies in length from one month to more than two years.⁴⁷

The establishment of the kindergarten does not necessarily imply that it automatically becomes an integral part of the period of elementary education. In fact, the public-school kindergarten started as a unit which was created separately from the elementary school. In time, however, as the educational values of the kindergarten were demonstrated, endeavors were begun to make the kindergarten a closely articulated part of the primary unit. Professional literature and curricula treating of unified kindergarten-primary work and similar training for kindergarten and primary-grade teachers have aided in integrating this new unit more closely as a part of the elementary school. That school administrators have not been unmindful of the desirability of having a closely coördinated primary unit consisting of the kindergarten and the lower grades is shown by the fact that the greatest number of cities of all population sizes (Table XI) places the general supervision of elementary grades and kindergartens under one supervisor who coördinates the work. Apparently the elementary-school program of the future will include what is now the kindergarten.

Whether the downward extension of the elementary school will stop with the addition of the kindergarten is very problematical at this time. As a major outgrowth of the general acceptance of the values of kindergarten instruction and as an outcome of the renewed interest in child study, there has arisen a growing demand for nursery-school training. The idea of providing care and training for children from one to four or five years of age had found expression in various types of nursery schools from an early date.⁴⁸ The first day nursery to become a part of a public-school system was created in Los Angeles, California, in 1910, and was formally sponsored

⁴⁷ Mary D. Davis, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

⁴⁸ *Preschool and Parental Education, op. cit.*, Ch. ii.

and supported by the board of education in 1917.⁴⁹ But four nursery schools were reported as organized in or before 1920. In 1930 there were 226 schools. Practically all of these were private institutions or research centers connected with universities or teacher-training schools. Only four were reported as parts of city public schools. Of the total number, 109 were reported to the Office of Education between 1928 and 1930.⁵⁰ The growing tendency to consider the nursery school as a desirable part of a child's education will perhaps in time result in this institution becoming an integral part of the public school.⁵¹

The acceptance of the kindergarten, at least in thought if not in universal practice, as a part of the public-school program and the more recent interest in nursery-school training have brought to the educational field an interesting demarcation in point of view regarding the work of the school in its relation to the child. In the kindergarten the emphasis is laid on the development of individual children rather than on the development of subject-matter which has been characteristic of the grades. In the modern kindergartens there are no generally accepted or standardized programs of activities and there are no formally established standards of attainment. Each child is studied from all possible angles, and activities appropriate to his needs are organized. The goal is progress and development for *each* child in terms of health, emotional stability, attitudes, habits, self-control, initiative, etc., which will lead to a more successful and happy group life. The kindergarten thus takes as its *chief* and *immediate* objectives the broader goals of education, namely, successful participation in a democratic society. This is quite a contrast from the *immediate* objectives which have characterized the elementary grades, namely subject-matter attainments. Some, no doubt,

⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 90.

⁵⁰ Bess Goodykoontz and others, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

⁵¹ Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Organization and Administration* (Ginn and Co., 1931), p. 245.

will argue that even in the grades the chief purposes of instruction are other than subject-matter achievements but careful observation of current practice will soon dispel such illusions. Perhaps present practice is justified. There is no thought here of arguing the merit of such objectives, but merely to call attention to what appear to be fundamental and significant differences between present practices in the kindergarten and the elementary grades. Whichever one of these points of view prevails, as the closer articulation between the kindergarten and the primary grades now being sought is accomplished, it will have important bearings on the extent to which school practices seek to attain more fully the broader goals of education and the recognition of individual differences.

RELATION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TO THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

To attempt a presentation of what one might term desirable relationships of elementary to secondary education is fraught with danger because appropriate criteria for delimiting the field of elementary education and for the beginning of the secondary period have not been established. Although some persons, particularly H. C. Morrison, feel that secondary education should begin at the point where the child has acquired the basic techniques which enable him "to study" effectively under the guidance of the teacher (for most children this ability is attained by age nine), current practice does not recognize it.⁵² If a cue may be taken from the tendencies manifest in present practice, completion of the sixth grade will be accepted as the upper limit of the elementary school and secondary education will begin with what is now called the seventh grade. The reader will recognize that these are arbitrary limits based on chronological age and school

⁵² H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in The Secondary School*, 2nd Edition (University of Chicago Press, 1931).

grade rather than on scientifically determined characteristics of pupil growth. At any rate, the tendency to subtract certain grades from the upper end of the elementary program—a process which by some has been called a sort of decapitation—and to include these grades in the secondary-school period changes materially the relationship which elementary education bears to secondary education.

Other important factors in the relationships of the two units under consideration are the trend in enrollments and the changes in secondary education itself. Before popular demands for longer periods of training for children had reached their present status and before compulsory attendance laws operated as effectively as they do now it was not uncommon for large proportions of pupils to conclude their formal schooling soon after age twelve or thirteen, or the completion of the sixth grade. Even as late as 1909 Ayres concluded that 40 per cent had left school at age fourteen and 70 per cent had dropped out by age fifteen.⁵³ Statistics compiled by the Office of Education show that in 1900 about 12 per cent of the children from fifteen to eighteen years of age were enrolled in some type of (public or private) high school. By 1920 this figure had risen to about 33 per cent and by 1928 to nearly 55 per cent.⁵⁴ The figures of Table VIII show that enrollments in Grades 7 and 8 have increased 36 and 39 per cent, respectively, during the decade from 1918 to 1928. This change in the proportion of adolescent children who are remaining in school to continue their training in the secondary field has had important bearing upon the organization and the purposes of the secondary school. The secondary school, and particularly that portion of the secondary unit which has been called the junior high school, is no longer an institution for the education of the select few, but has become a school which must provide for "all the children of all the people."

⁵³ L. P. Ayres, *Laggards in Our Schools* (Russell Sage Foundation, 1909), p. 28.

⁵⁴ *Biennial Survey of Education, 1926-1928*, p. 433.

In response to the changing demands upon the secondary school, marked changes in aims and functions, curricula, and policies governing its administration have been effected in the high school.⁵⁵

In view of this transition, the elementary school no longer occupies the position which it formerly held. It is no longer to be looked upon as the only school which the majority of pupils will attend. Hence, it no longer assumes the "finishing" responsibilities which it carried less than two decades ago. It is merely the introductory unit in an articulated system of schools. It is that unit in which pupils will spend such periods of time as are deemed necessary to give them that experience and growth essential for subsequent types of training.

How this first link in the chain of schools is to be related to the second link, the junior high school, will depend in large part upon the educational policies which govern the respective units. If the elementary school becomes an institution, the organization and administration of which provides for differentiated curricula, adaptation of methods and materials according to the individual differences of pupils, and classification, promotion, and other administrative policies which are in harmony with the best current educational thought, its graduates will represent a diversity of interests, abilities, and attainments which must be recognized and provided for by the secondary school. The program of studies and particularly the policies (including the attitude of teachers) which govern the administration of the secondary unit will depend to a large degree upon what those responsible for its operation conceive to be the legitimate aims and functions of these two contiguous schools. The nature of the relationship of the two institutions will be conditioned by the extent which those working in each can come to a common agreement and clear understanding of the specific and concrete contributions which each

⁵⁵ R. E. Rutledge and Allen Fowler, "The Changing Senior High School Population and the Curriculum Problem," *School Review*, Vol. 40 (February, 1932), pp. 109-114.

unit is to make towards the ultimate goals of education. This relationship of aims and functions has been discussed in a previous section.

If it is agreed that the elementary school is to assume full, or nearly full, responsibility for a fairly high degree of achievement in the tool subjects as a prerequisite for admission to secondary education, then it is likely that the elementary school (and particularly now that it concludes at the end of the sixth grade) will become a drill school in which rigid promotional standards will be applied in each grade and in which retardation and pupil failure will abound. If, on the other hand, it is agreed that the elementary school shall be free from rigidly defined preparatory functions with respect to the tool subjects, then the lower school may center more of its attention upon activities and projects which will be designed to contribute more fully to its other aims and functions. Perhaps, as some believe, the latter type of curriculum will provide adequately for the tool subjects. This has not been demonstrated fully, but is being attempted by a number of school systems to which reference will be made in a subsequent chapter.

By way of summary, it is proposed that the elementary school be looked upon as an institution which children from an early age will attend for a designated period of time. It is doubtful whether the length of this period should differ according to ability. During this time, however, there will be provided a wholesome environment and a wide variety of worth-while activities which have been found to be effective in promoting pupil growth towards the aims of education which, in a broad way, may be translated into efficient, responsible citizenship in a democratic society. In the endeavor to attain this objective a certain amount of training in the tool subjects will be necessary. The degree of attainment, or progress towards the attainment of any or all the goals of education will vary according to the abilities of individuals, but *all* pupils will be accepted and properly provided for by

the secondary school after having spent the designated period of time in the elementary school.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DEFINED

The student of education is interested in a critical examination of educational theories and current practices and to note the extent to which the latter is consistent with the former. He is also interested in testing theory, to ascertain the degree to which it is feasible in practice. In actual practice many difficulties and drawbacks are encountered which prevent or at least defer ready conformity to the best educational thought. In this chapter attention has been called to a number of unanswered questions. Until these as yet unsettled issues are more definitely determined, it will be difficult to state in concrete terms what the elementary school should be. But in the meantime the schools must continue to operate. The American elementary school is a functioning institution. It cannot close its doors until theories have determined scientifically its exact characteristics. The best the institution can do is to be responsive to changing theories and demands. The elementary school has been and still is undergoing changes. Although the wisdom of some of these changes may be questioned, current practice suggests that the introductory unit in the American public-school system is an institution with the following characteristics:

1. The chief aims are *civic-social-moral responsibility, recreational and æsthetic participation and appreciation, and physical and mental health.*

2. To aid in the more effective attainment of the above aims, there will be recognized such functions as *recognizing individual differences, adapting education to the child's nature and interests, and training in the fundamental processes.*

3. The school will provide a seven-year or an eight-year program for all children of approximately ages four or five to twelve, inclusive.

4. The organization of the school will make possible closely articulated and continuous pupil progress from the time the child enters the elementary school until he has reached age twelve. The adminis-

trative awkwardness and pupil maladjustment arising from the present artificial distinction between the nursery school, the kindergarten, and the elementary grades will disappear as the continuous nature of child development is recognized in the organization of the school. To obtain a unified elementary-school program as is postulated here it may be necessary to abandon some of our present terminology, such as "kindergarten," and "a school grade."

5. The typical elementary school is a non-specialized institution in that it will offer the same type of training to all throughout the period of attendance. The amount, the exact nature of, and the rate at which the training will be administered will be adjusted to the abilities of pupils.

6. Hence, the degree of achievement, or the degree of progress which the pupils will have made in the various types of work or activities designed to lead to the ultimate goals, will differ widely at the time the pupils are ready to enter the period of secondary education.

7. The elementary school will not be the only school which a large proportion of pupils will attend. It will be merely the introductory unit. Practically all of its graduates will anticipate some secondary-school training.

8. Its instruction is confined almost entirely to rudimentary studies in the vernacular.

9. The pupil population includes "all the children of all the people." It is typically democratic, although usually not characterized in that way because the pupils are within the compulsory-school-attendance ages and almost all of them are pre-adolescent.

10. Although at present its teaching staff is composed almost entirely of a special teacher group, that is, graduates of two-year training courses in normal schools and teachers colleges, standards for training are being raised rapidly so that in the near future large proportions of its teachers will hold certificates based on three and four years of preparation.

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CHAPTER III

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The curriculum of the elementary school consists of the sum total of educative experiences of children during their sojourn in the first unit of the educational system. The curriculum may be considered as the vehicle whereby and through which we hope to enable children to achieve the objectives of elementary education. The curriculum, therefore, is not merely a course of study, an organized program of studies, or a question of subject-matter.¹ It is more inclusive than any of these items. It represents all of the activities transpiring in school life through which a child learns.² The various studies, organized activities, both curricular and extracurricular, and the entire social life and atmosphere of the school find their respective places in the curriculum. Each is designed to make its contribution toward the attainment of the ultimate goals of education.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum, as the heart of the school, is the most important aspect of the elementary school. It is the curriculum which gives expression in concrete form to the educational

¹ W. D. Cocking, *Administrative Procedures in Curriculum Making for Public Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 329 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), p. 42.

² No doubt the total curriculum for the child is broader than the life of the school, but the question under consideration here is the school curriculum.

theories and policies which govern elementary education in a given community. Whatever the accepted objectives of elementary education may be, the degree to which they are attained and the manner in which they are attained are determined in large measure by the curriculum and the educational theories which it represents. It is entirely within reason to believe that many present-day curricula are entirely out of harmony with modern objectives of elementary education, and hence make it relatively impossible for children to attain the goals which have been assigned to the elementary school of the twentieth century.³

The curriculum is, or should be if it is not now, the controlling force in determining the organization and the administration of the elementary school. It is the function of administration to so organize and execute the activities of the school and the curriculum that the educational policies of the school system may be applied effectively and economically. This intimate relationship between the curriculum and its designated functions and the organization of the school makes it imperative that the latter be subservient to the former. It is only when organization is looked upon as a means or an agency whose prime function is to facilitate the execution of the educational policies and theories as manifest by the curriculum that the curriculum is permitted free expression. All too frequently a nobly planned curriculum is robbed of its effectiveness by superimposed restrictions and conventionalisms of organization. In a well organized school the schedule and management of activities is determined in the light of the results of a careful analysis of the curriculum and its major purposes, rather than by a process of fitting a curriculum into an established organization which may have been effective when the purposes of education were quite different.

³ *Curriculum-Making: Past and Present, Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Sec. I* (Public School Publishing Co., 1926).

CONTENT OF THE CURRICULUM

The content for the curricula of elementary schools has been secured in many ways and from many sources.⁴ Briefly stated, the approaches to curriculum-making may be enumerated as follows: child experience, creative values, frontier thinkers, social values, social statistics, educational shortages, emotionalized attitudes, activity analysis, objectives, scientific, best present practice, adult needs, superimposed or scissors and paste method, and the individual teacher approach. Each of these approaches has certain merits and certain limitations from the viewpoint of public-school practice. There are few cities in which the attempts at curriculum reconstruction do not incorporate the desirable features of several or all of the approaches to curriculum-making. Wherever state curricula are not used, a common method has been for specialists and teachers to collect all available courses of study representing the best practices in other cities and, after careful investigation, to select and to arrange for their own use a curriculum which in their judgment is best suited to the local situation.

Each of the plans for securing curriculum content has aspects concerning which no agreement will be found among experts. Perhaps the most significant disagreements grow out

⁴For extended treatments of the approaches to curriculum-making see:

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F. G. Bonser, *The Elementary School Curriculum* (The Macmillan Co., 1922).

W. W. Charters, *Curriculum Construction* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924).

Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum* (The Macmillan Co., 1923).

of the philosophies arising from the conflict between the "socially imposed" curriculum and the "child-centered" curriculum.⁵ No doubt the various approaches are more at variance in theory than in actual application. Most public-school curricula must be built in the light of certain controlling influences. There are selected social heritages which are basic to an understanding of and participation in present-day life and which must become a part of the educational equipment of every child.⁶ Within each state there are subjects and activities (Tables XII and XIII) which, as a result of legislative enactments, must be accorded a place in the school curriculum. Also, one must not overlook the controlling influence of textbooks which represent the concepts of their authors regarding curriculum content. Since instruction in American schools is characteristically textbook teaching, the content of textbooks determines the curriculum to a larger extent than one might anticipate. In many states the adopted texts must be used for a minimum number of years. The statutes of thirty-eight states specify the term of years for which textbook adoptions are made. The range in years is from three to ten. In thirty-three states the term of years for adoption is five or more.⁷ The schools of some states no doubt find curriculum revision impeded by the necessary retention of textbooks after they have ceased to fit the curricular needs of the school.

In few school systems is the content of the curriculum obtained through the application of a single technique or approach for content selection; neither does it represent a single narrow philosophy of curriculum construction. Usually

⁵ F. N. Freeman, "A Psychological Analysis of One Problem of Curriculum Construction," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 28 (May, 1927), p. 653.

⁶ C. H. Judd, *The Psychology of Social Institutions* (The Macmillan Co., 1926).

⁷ C. J. Tidwell, *State Control of Textbooks*, Contributions to Education, No. 299 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), p. 20.

a variety of techniques are employed and many sources of information are consulted for guidance in the selection and arrangement of curriculum materials and activities. Figure 4 illustrates very well the sources and the many kinds of

TABLE XII

SUBJECTS REQUIRED BY LEGISLATIVE AUTHORITY *

Subjects	Number of States	Subjects	Number of States
Agriculture.....	14	Language	11
Algebra.....	3	Literature.....	2
Arithmetic.....	36	Manual training.....	7
Bible.....	13	Morals.....	20
Citizenship.....	26	Music.....	9
Civil government.....	22	Nature of alcoholic drinks.....	48
Composition	12	Physiology and hygiene	38
Constitution.....	37	Physical training....	29
Domestic science	7	Preservation of birds and game....	2
Drawing.....	13	Prevention of communicable disease.....	12
Elementary science....	4	Reading.....	36
Forestry.....	1	Safety.....	4
Geography.....	35	Spanish.....	1
Grammar.....	32	Spelling.....	34
Health.....	17	Thrift.....	5
History (state).....	22	Writing.....	34
Humane treatment of animals.....	20	Total.....	648
Hygiene and sanitation.	4		
Industrial work.....	2		

* Summarized from *Current Practices in the Construction of State Courses of Study*, U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 4, pp. 5-6.

information which are utilized in constructing modern curricula. The newly formed curricula are usually subjected to experimental trial—often in schools especially equipped for the purpose—before city-wide adoption is recommended.

TABLE XIII

ACTIVITIES REQUIRED IN THE VARIOUS STATES BY LEGISLATIVE
AUTHORITY *

Activities	Number of States
Arbor day.....	26
Bird day.	8
Dental inspection.	3
Display of flag	39
Fire drill.....	23
Library	1
Medical inspection	26
Playgrounds.....	2
Prominent birthdays.....	31
Temperance day.....	18
Total.....	177

* Summarized from *Current Practices in the Construction of State Courses of Study*, U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 4, p. 4.

THE CHANGING CURRICULUM

A public-school curriculum cannot remain static in a dynamic society. The general public expects the school to provide children with the training requisite for successful participation in the *present* social and economic order. This can hardly be attained with out-of-date curricula. American social, economic, and political life experienced changes of an almost revolutionary character during the half century preceding 1900; but the changes of this earlier period seem minor when compared to those which have taken place since 1900. Hence, it is not surprising to find that school curricula have been subjected to much adverse criticism. They have been accused of lagging far behind the needs of the age. Although it is doubtful whether any curriculum can ever be thoroughly satisfactory—because it is bound to lag behind in a rapidly changing society—the amount of criticism it receives may be roughly proportional to the degree to which it is outmoded.

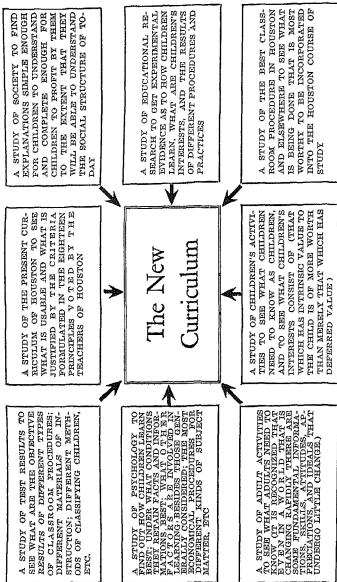


FIG. 4. SOURCES OF CONTENT FOR THE NEW CURRICULUM.

Adopted from *Curriculum Revision and Development in Houston, Texas: 1924-1930* (Houston, Texas, Board of Education, 1931), p. 42.

It is not to be implied from these statements that the elementary-school curriculum has been static during the period under review. Much to the contrary! In fact, no curricula which are so immediately subject to the desires of the people as are the curricula of American schools could remain static when the modes of living of the people are in constant flux. The public at large and specialized groups bring pressures to bear which tend to change the school curricula.⁸ To the efforts of these interested groups must be added the more significant and the more far-reaching contributions of educational workers. Subjects of study have been added,⁹ time allotments have been changed (Fig. 5), the content of existing subjects has been modified, and teaching methods have been improved.

No period in the history of American education has witnessed the intensive study of educational problems by the profession itself as has the period since 1915. Every new contribution, whether it pertain to individual differences, the psychology of learning, or some other phase of education which research brings has a general bearing on the curriculum. The accumulated findings of research provide a wealth of suggestions for the improvement of curricula, and the profession is endeavoring to revise school practice in accordance with scientific findings and current needs. Prior to 1920 fewer than 1,500 courses of study had been published in the United States. Since 1925 more than 30,000 courses have been collected in one laboratory alone.¹⁰ Dr. Bruner states:

⁸ Over 2,200 prescriptions have been laid down by state legislatures regarding what shall, and what shall not be taught in elementary schools. See J. K. Flanders, *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925).

⁹ From 1868 to 1904 many new subjects were added, but there were practically no omissions during those thirty-six years. See: B. R. Payne, *Public Elementary School Curricula* (Silver, Burdett and Co., 1905), p. 59.

¹⁰ H. B. Bruner, "Present Status of Curriculum," in *Curriculum Making in Current Practice* (Northwestern University, School of Education, 1932), p. 13.

America has witnessed in the last decade more activity in curriculum and course of study construction than in all its previous history. Beginning in a few forward-looking communities as far back as 1920 the movement to examine and overhaul curricula and courses of study in the public schools has developed into national proportions. Thousands of communities are now busily engaged in some phase of

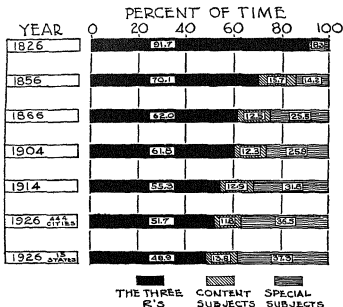


FIG. 5. CHANGES IN PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL TIME IN GRADES 1-6 ALLOTTED TO THE THREE R'S, THE CONTENT SUBJECTS, AND THE SPECIAL SUBJECTS, 1826-1926.

From C. H. Mann, *How Schools Use Their Time*, Contributions to Education, No. 333 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), p. 42.

the task of curriculum construction or revision. The type of activity has varied from a remote realization that something ought to be done, to extensive programs where entire cities and states have set up intricate and smoothly working organizations for revising their curricula. In many instances curriculum departments have been added to the research bureaus of city systems and well-equipped

curriculum libraries and laboratories are being established all over the country.¹¹

One problem of curriculum-making which is assuming new proportions in our present industrial civilization is education for leisure.¹² As technological inventions and large-scale production continue to displace human labor, the American people will be confronted with increasing amounts of leisure time which should be directed into worth-while channels. Dean Russell, after reviewing current trends, said:

With these factors in mind, it is not too much to speculate that we are entering a society in which in good times, not in depressions, many people will be idle. Young people will not be employed. Older people will be retired. Young people from twenty to forty-five, men and women, will indulge in brief periods of furious activity to be followed each day by hours of relaxation with two or three days off each week. Either we shall have a situation like this, or else the opportunity to work will be as at present unjustly distributed, or else there will be a deviation from the tendencies which have operated in the years just past.

This means that the machine age will have brought upon us the condition dreaded not only by the ship captain, but by all societies in the past. We cannot deport those who are not at work. We have no distant frontier to which they can go nor free land to give to them. We cannot divert their minds by athletic spectacles. We will not tolerate opium. We have legislated against alcohol and lotteries. We have neither a body of ancient customs and games nor any organized set of religious observances. We do not want war. All the usual social medicines used to operate upon idle crowds are denied to us in the United States. Our only hope is education.¹³

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

¹² "The question of education for leisure is now being actively discussed both in this country and in my own (England) and indeed all over the continent of Europe. It has come rather suddenly to the forefront of educational questions." L. P. Jacks, "Education for Leisure," in the *Official Report of the Department of Superintendence* (Washington, D. C., 1932), p. 48.

See also: E. T. Lies, "Education for Leisure," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 21 (November, 1932), pp. 253-254

¹³ W. J. Russell, "Leisure and National Security," in the *Official Report of the Department of Superintendence* (Washington, D. C., 1932), p. 53.

ORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Traditionally the elementary-school curriculum has been organized into a series of subjects, each one of which has been allotted a given amount of time and a given place in the program of the school. This practice still prevails in by far the largest proportion of public elementary schools. For some time, however, there has been severe criticism of the kind of curriculum which partitions knowledge and school exercises into narrow subject-matter fields. The criticisms have come largely from those who have styled themselves as "progressives" and from certain others who also believe that one of the causes of the maladjustment which exists between the curriculum and present curricular needs is the subject organization of current teaching programs.

The critics point out that the existing subject divisions create barriers between school subjects which hinder true learning, rather than promote it.¹⁴ Many illustrations can be drawn from current problems in industrial, political, and social life which, to be truly understood, must be studied in the close relationships of their natural settings rather than in subject divisions which tend to isolate meanings, principles, movements, and forces, and thus tend to destroy broad understandings. It has also been said that a curriculum organized by subjects makes it very difficult, if not impossible, to adapt the curriculum to the interests, needs, and purposes of children. The belief is current that the curriculum which is most effective educationally is one which is built around the needs and interests of pupils and is organized in such a way that children may initiate and carry to successful conclusion purposeful projects and activities (Figs. 6 and 7). Such units of work necessarily draw their content from many fields of human knowledge and can hardly be used effectively if the curriculum consists of twenty or more separate subjects and

¹⁴ *The Foundations of Curriculum-Making, Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (1926)*, p. 20.

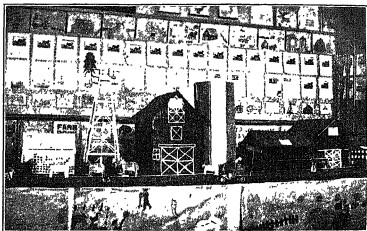


FIG. 6. A FARMYARD AND PICTURES OF VARIOUS PHASES OF FARM LIFE PREPARED BY CHILDREN OF A THIRD GRADE AS PART OF A UNIT ON FARM LIFE.

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Batavia, Illinois.

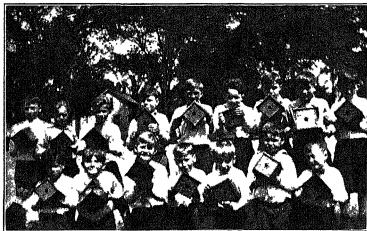


FIG. 7. BIRD HOUSES CONSTRUCTED BY THIRD-GRADE BOYS AS PART OF A UNIT ON "BIRDS IN OUR COMMUNITY."

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Batavia, Illinois.

children are regimented through a school day of many short periods.¹⁵ Criticisms are also raised to the effect that the curriculum is aimless, does not prepare for complete living, is lifeless, disconnected, congested, wasteful, and very untimely in that it gives so little attention to the vital problems of contemporary life.¹⁶

Attempts to correct the weaknesses of the traditional curriculum are legion and have taken many forms. Only a few can be described here. One of the most radical departures is the experiment conducted by Meriam in the elementary school of the University of Missouri.¹⁷ Instead of the usual array of subjects, Meriam used only four: observation, play, stories (including music, poetry and pictures), and handwork. Through this fourfold organization, activities were introduced which it was believed were in keeping with child needs and interests and still provide the necessary training in fundamental knowledges and skills. At Winnetka, Illinois, and in some of the experimental schools of Chicago and other cities the curriculum has been divided into two parts, namely, the common essentials and the group and creative activities. The common essentials are taught by means of individualized instructional materials.¹⁸ Some educators have given extended thought and some trial to the "project curriculum" in which the curriculum is built as far as possible in terms of child interests and desires. One of the most extensive attempts to evaluate the project curriculum was made by Collings in a rural school.¹⁹ A fourth type of curriculum reorganization consists of

¹⁵ In 1923 the elementary-school curriculum of California consisted of thirty-two subjects. W. C. Bagley and G. C. Kyte, *The California Curriculum Study* (Berkeley, University of California Printing Office, 1926), p. 16.

¹⁶ J. L. Meriam, *Child Life and the Curriculum* (World Book Co., 1920), pp. 66-68.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁸ See Chapter IV for a more extended discussion of this plan.

¹⁹ Ellsworth Collings, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum* (The Macmillan Co., 1923).

the "activity units" and "activity curricula" which have found their way into public and private schools. This latter group represents all degrees of deviation from the conventional curriculum, ranging from an almost complete project curriculum to little more than the application of modern teaching methods to the conventional subjects. In many instances curriculum reorganization has resulted, not so much in a fundamental change of content, but in a rearrangement of content into teaching units in which a maximum of correlation and integration of subject-matter is sought and in which modern principles of psychology are applied in a more thorough fashion. In some instances activity units are used to supplement, integrate, and provide motivation for the study of regular school subjects.²⁰ One chief purpose of the fourth type of reorganization is to provide integrated, wholehearted, purposeful experiences for children.²¹

Although the movement for the reorganization and integration of the curriculum has been under way for some time, the conventional curriculum organized along subject lines has its ardent supporters. It is argued that the phrase "the whole child" is an empty verbalism because there is no such entity.²² Thinking proceeds in an orderly fashion and thorough mental concentration is largely confined, at any one time, to specific topics or subject fields. Hence, the argument that a curriculum divided into subjects disrupts the natural processes of thought is not based on sound principles of psychology. Even though all may grant that the school should consider all aspects of child life and should endeavor to provide for them, it does

²⁰ Lucy W. Clouser, Wilma J. Robinson, and Dena L. Neely, *Educative Experiences Through Activity Units* (Lyons and Carnahan, 1932), p. 7.

²¹ Lucy Gage, "Unification of the Child's Experience Through the Curriculum," in *Curriculum Making in Current Practice* (School of Education, Northwestern University, 1932), pp. 55-60.

²² C. H. Judd, "The Training of Teachers for a Progressive Educational Program," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 31 (April, 1931), pp. 576-584.

not follow that all phases of child life should be a part of each activity. Neither does it mean that pupils cannot engage in integrated, purposeful tasks unless the present curriculum of subjects is abandoned.

Whether the curriculum of the elementary school of the future shall consist of "subjects" or "activities, projects, and experiences" in which subject lines are ignored must be determined on the basis of extensive research. To date much has been written condemning the present curriculum and lauding the proposed reorganizations. No doubt much of the criticism has a sound basis in modern psychology, but little attempt has been made to obtain scientific determination of the advantages of the "new" curriculum or to discover precisely wherein the various proposed reorganizations have their strengths and their weaknesses and the degree to which reorganization is desirable. A profession that aims to be scientific cannot permit itself to be misled by vague theories and plausible propaganda. Sane judgment and careful study are essential at every point. There is little doubt that the elementary-school curriculum in most cities is in serious and immediate need of reorganization in the light of modern psychology and the present needs of society, but contemplated changes should be subjected to critical research and should not be made because "someone is doing it" or because curriculum revision seems to be the style.

ELEMENTS OF THE NEW CURRICULUM

It is not within the scope of this book to present an extended treatment of the modern elementary-school curriculum. Attention can be called only to a few of the important new developments, particularly those which seem to have significant implications for the organization and administration of the schools. One of these essential features pertains to the changes which have taken place in the educational thought as it affects curriculum and method. There has been a rein-

terpretation of the educational process as it relates to child life and a reëmphasis on child growth and development. A deeper realization of the fact that children's present tendencies afford the basis for all education²³ has brought about a greater recognition of children's interests and abilities and the adjustment of content and method to insure a satisfactory degree of success on the part of the learner. Recently, serious thought has been given to the selection of school exercises and activities that safeguard the mental health of pupils, promote their social adjustment, provide sequences of purposeful endeavors,²⁴ and challenge creativeness and self-expression.²⁵ Such emphases require fundamental changes in the direction of learning, in the kinds of educative experiences provided, and in the manner in which the curriculum is organized and administered. It seems apparent that the organization of the school is intimately related to the manner in which the education of children is to proceed in the classroom.

CHARACTER EDUCATION

Although not a new objective of the school, character education is assuming a larger rôle in the major goals sought by the school than it did in former years. Extended discussion and research have aided in focusing the attention of school people upon the many ways in which the activities of the school may make a more positive contribution toward character development and in realizing more fully that all school life is inextricably associated with character outcomes.²⁶ The desire to have the school contribute in a larger measure

²³ Ruth M. Hockett (Editor), *Teachers' Guide to Child Development* (Sacramento, California, State Printing Office, 1930), p. 3.

²⁴ Marion P. Stevens, *The Activities Curriculum in the Primary Grades* (D. C. Heath and Co., 1931), pp. 10-13.

²⁵ Hughes Mearns, *Creative Youth* (Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1925), .

²⁶ *Character Education, Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence* (1932), Ch. ix.

toward the development of good character in its pupils has led to the creation of a variety of curricular and administrative devices which were to serve specialized purposes in this regard. In some schools a definite period in the school day was set aside for direct instruction while other schools gave attention to the emphasis of good character traits through the regular lessons, pupil self-government, home-room programs, auditorium activities, "special interest" clubs, or other extra-curriculum activities. In most instances the increased attention to character education has had a direct relationship to the organization and administration of the school.²⁷ Programs for instruction, time allotments, the administration of teacher and pupil personnel, as well as other phases of the management of the school have been affected.

HEALTH EDUCATION

Health education, like character education, is an integral part of nearly all aspects of school life. Health, in a certain sense, is a way of living and good health habits are manifest in nearly all school activities as well as in the out-of-school life of the child. From the viewpoint of the teacher, health education encompasses such major items as school hygiene which includes the hygiene of instruction and the hygiene of the school plant, health supervision and health service, physical education, special provisions for handicapped children, and the establishment of coöperative relations with the homes and the community so that the latter may coöperate in the attainment of the health objectives of the school. From the viewpoint of the curriculum-maker health education embodies the determination of essential and appropriate objectives and the selection, application, distribution, and evaluation of activities and instructional materials whereby the school may promote the largest amount of growth of both normal and handicapped children toward desirable health goals.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, Chs. xii and xiii.

It is only within the last twenty-five years that health education has been accorded a place in the program of studies of the elementary school and it was not until still more recently that the vital importance of health education was recognized. While the conservation of health is conceded to come first among educational aims, the recency of this acknowledgment leaves the present program for health in many schools in a somewhat casual and chaotic condition. In all too many schools the objectives set up are vague and the activities, isolated in character, have been squeezed into the existing curriculum on the basis of interfering with tradition and adding to school costs as little as possible.²⁸ In the more progressive schools extensive endeavors are being made to utilize all possible phases of school life in the promotion of health. Classroom instruction, in accordance with the accepted course of study in health education, incorporates activities which are built around the instructional needs of pupils. Data from the teacher's survey of the health habits of children and from the records of the school doctor, the school dentist, and the school nurse provide the basis for lessons which have a vital and an immediate relationship to the pupils in school. Health education is not confined to a designated period for health instruction. Attempts are made to utilize as far as possible all school situations for the development of health knowledge and health habits, thus making the program for health permeate the life of the school rather than confining it to a brief period of direct instruction. Other subjects of study present many opportunities for correlated health instruction. Chappellear found (Table XIV) that certain subjects have a large amount of material in them which has a bearing on health education.²⁹ While Chappellear's data con-

²⁸ F. P. Graves, *The Administration of American Education* (The Macmillan Company, 1932), p. 118.

²⁹ C. S. Chappellear, *Health Subject-Matter in Natural Sciences*, Contributions to Education, No. 341 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929).

cern high-school sciences, they are suggestive of the manner in which the subjects of the elementary school might be utilized.

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY OF ALL ANALYSES OF THE HEALTH CONTENT IN THE SUBJECT MATTER OF NATURAL SCIENCE

	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SUBJECT MATTER DEVOTED TO HEALTH IN EACH SCIENCE			
	General Science	Biology	Chemistry	Physics
Page analysis of five textbooks. . . .	30.78	36.99	9.16	3.05
Topical analysis of five state courses of study.	39.49	42.80	16.65	2.76
Topical analysis of five city courses of study.	34.91	32.23	14.45	6.13
Credit-point analysis of thirteen college entrance examinations.		33.23	5.79	2.82
Credit-point analysis of twenty New York Regent's examinations.		31.93	7.77	1.03
Average.	33.36	35.44	10.76	3.16

Other school activities which have concrete, curricular implications for health education are physical education, including out-door play, and the use of the school cafeteria. Through a direct correlation of the health-service department and the program for physical education, much corrective and remedial work can be included in the latter and thus bring returns in the promotion of health far above the usual outcomes. The school cafeteria affords an immediate practice ground for the application of classroom discussions regarding food values, balanced diet, and habits and attitudes in relation to foods. Under teacher guidance the school cafeteria presents many opportunities for children to establish desirable health knowl-

edges and health habits. In some schools, at least in the primary grades, the noon meal is followed by a rest period, during which the pupils are given training in relaxation and hygienic sleeping.

For the school administrator this broad concept of health education presents a real challenge to his ability to organize and administer. The work of the health-service department, the program of physical education and corrective work, and health instruction must be integrated and coördinated so that each may make the work of the others more effective. Appropriate activities and instructional materials must be selected and the classroom teachers trained in their use. The whole administrative machinery must function in such a way that the classroom teacher may utilize to the maximum the many opportunities and avenues for health education. Because of the recency and the importance of comprehensive health programs and because of the many problems pertaining to the organization and administration of the program for health in the public schools, it was thought desirable to give this topic a more extended treatment in a subsequent chapter.

BOOKS AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Books and instructional materials are indeed the tools of the classroom and are of primary importance for the learner, the teacher, and the curriculum-maker. Since books and materials furnish the media through which many of the educational processes operate, the quantity and character of these tools of learning determine in no small measure the methods teachers use and the actual outcomes of school experiences. At an earlier date when the training of teachers and theories of education were quite different from what they are now, the characteristic classroom procedure of teachers required pupils to adhere rather closely to the study and memorization of the contents of a single text for each subject. Within the pres-

ent century, however, the level of training of teachers has been raised materially; and increased training has presumably been accompanied by greater knowledge, both academic and professional, and better techniques on the part of teachers. Teachers of to-day are in a better position to let their professional knowledge and insights guide their methodology in accordance with accepted educational theories than were teachers of even twenty years ago. Hence it is not surprising to find that in their efforts to apply current educational philosophies teachers are reaching out beyond the confines of a single text for supplementary materials of all kinds.³⁰ Socialized recitation projects and activities of various description bring into sharp relief purposeful undertakings on the part of children in the execution of which textbook content is utilized as a handmaiden and as a guide to planning and interpretation rather than as a goal in itself. The textbook thus occupies an entirely different relationship to the instructional process than it used to. In addition to a basic text pupils and teachers seek supplementary information and different points of view from the authors of other texts, from reference sets, books on nature study and science, geographical readers, and historical readers and novels.

It is desirable to select textbooks with a definite view of the purpose and function they are to serve in the classroom. Points of major emphasis in the various subjects, the methods of classroom procedure, and the relationship which the basic texts and other books have to the instructional process are important considerations in the selection of books. Several attempts have been made to develop criteria in the form of score cards to assist in a more careful and unbiased selection

³⁰ In spite of popular opinions to the contrary, data gathered in 1930 show that out of 234 lessons observed in city elementary schools only 10.4 per cent were of the formal textbook type whereas 25.1 per cent were classed as socialized recitation and projects. See W. C. Bagley, "The Textbook and Methods of Teaching," in *The Textbook in American Education, Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II* (1931), p. 19.

of books.³¹ To date the authors of score cards have centered their attention upon the selection of basic texts. Whether similar criteria could be applied in the selection of supplementary texts and reference books is not certain. No doubt some of the same criteria would apply while others might need elimination or modification. In addition to the careful selection of specific books, modern teaching demands a well balanced assortment of books and materials.

In the selection of adequate and appropriate books for the kind of teaching which is desired in the schools of to-day, school administrators are confronted with certain major issues. Among these are questions pertaining to free textbooks, state adoptions versus local autonomy in the selection of books, and the cost of free textbooks. It is generally conceded that free textbooks are the natural sequel of free tuition. Twenty states have laws (Table XV) which compel local districts to furnish textbooks free of charge to pupils. Although it is also frequently acknowledged that state-wide adoptions are undesirable and render hardships upon communities and local units within cities which have peculiar needs, there are still twenty-five states (Table XV) whose laws require state-wide adoption. The cost of free textbooks is frequently an important issue in local politics. The actual facts in the case are that the cost of textbooks is a surprisingly small item. Data show that in 1927-1928 the average expenditure for textbooks in thirteen states was only 1.7 per cent of the total expenditures for public schools; that in 1929-1930 the average cost of textbooks in 134 cities was 1.4 per cent of the total current ex-

³¹ R. H. Franzen and F. B. Knight, *Textbook Selection* (Baltimore, Warwick and York, 1922).

F. A. Jensen, *Current Procedure in Selecting Textbooks* (Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1931).

C. R. Maxwell, *The Selection of Textbooks* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1921).

——— "The Use of Score Cards in Evaluating Textbooks," in *The Textbook in American Education, Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II* (1931), Ch. viii.

penditures; that in 1928-1929 the average per capita cost of elementary school textbooks in nine free-textbook states was \$1.45; and that the annual cost of textbooks per pupil in the six-year elementary schools of ninety cities ranged from \$1.08 to \$1.76, with an average of \$1.49.³² At such low rates it

TABLE XV

TOTAL NUMBER OF STATES HAVING LEGAL PROVISIONS RELATIVE TO
UNIFORMITY OF TEXTBOOKS AND FREE TEXTBOOKS
AT FOUR DIFFERENT PERIODS *

	1895- 1897	1905- 1907	1915- 1917	1925- 1927
Area of uniformity				
State.. . . .	18	23	24	25
County.....	9	6	7	6†
Local.....	21	19	17	17
Free textbooks.				
A. Type of law				
Mandatory.....	9	12	15	20
Permissive.....	12	16	17	23
No laws.....	27	20	16	5
B. Source of funds				
State	0	0	2	8
County.....	1	1	1	0
Local.....	20	27	29	35

* From C. J. Tidwell, *State Control of Textbooks*, p. 6.

† Optional local or county for one state.

seems poor economy to place in the classroom a well trained and well paid teacher and then to handicap her work by such limited supplies of essential textbooks as are frequently found in schools in which pupils buy their own books. Some schools have overcome the difficulties in part by having pupils buy only the basic texts while the board of education furnishes free all supplementary books and materials.

³² N. B. Henry, "The Cost of Textbooks," *The Textbook in American Education*, *op. cit.*, Ch. xii.

Books, of course, do not constitute the total instructional equipment of the classroom. Much other material in the form of paper, notebooks, workbooks, maps, globes, charts, sand-tables, aquariums, and tools and materials for construction and dramatization is desired by teachers. To this array of equipment must be added the various devices for visual education, the radio, the "talkies," the museum, the library, and the opportunities for excursions and field trips. The excursions and field trips perhaps should be placed in a category separate from the others since they represent utilization of the neighborhood rather than facilities provided directly by the school.

VISUAL INSTRUCTION

The concept of visual education is neither new nor unique. Its origin can be traced back to primitive peoples. As an important teaching device it has always been an element in American classroom procedure. Even in the most formal learning situation such media as maps, charts, diagrams, models, and pictures have been used quite generally by all teachers. Textbooks contain many maps, pictures, and graphs. Stereoscopes and crude projection devices have been among the teaching tools of some teachers but the inconvenient and cumbersome way in which these instruments had to be used was a distinct limitation. It was not until the twentieth-century developments in all types of projection instruments that visual instruction assumed new proportions and presaged unforeseen avenues of education.

Visual instruction, of course, is not a separate subject nor even a new procedure in the teaching process.³³ It simply means the presentation of knowledge to be gained through the "seeing experience." In some schools the only available motion picture projector has been installed in the school auditorium. Desirable as this may be, it confines the showing of pictures

³³ Anna V. Dorris, *Visual Instruction in the Public Schools* (Ginn and Co., 1928), p. 6.

to auditorium or assembly periods or to such infrequent intervals as a class may be taken to the auditorium. Under such an arrangement educational films are looked upon more or less as extracurricular activities. Also, it is difficult to arrange the showing of films as an integral part of classroom activities. No doubt a better arrangement is to have a small projector which can be placed directly in the classroom and utilized as needed.

Although the motion-picture phase of education is still quite new, experience and research suggest the nature of the contributions which films can make to the educational process. The most extensive experiment in this field, conducted by Wood and Freeman and including nearly 11,000 children in more than three hundred geography and general-science classes taught by nearly two hundred teachers, in Grades 4 to 9, inclusive, and distributed in twelve cities, reveals the distinct superiority of the experimental classes taught with the aid of motion picture films.³⁴ In the preparation of the films used in this experiment particular care was exercised to obtain material that was essentially characterized by motion of one sort or another. An effort was also made to avoid pedagogical tasks which can be accomplished better by other media of instruction. In addition to a careful analysis of the results of the experiment, the authors project what in their opinion represents the specific contribution of the films. A portion of the statement by Wood and Freeman follows:

This difference in the relative attainment of the X (experimental) and C (control) groups is of broad significance and leads to a fundamental distinction. The first and most immediate aim of the pupil's education is to make him acquainted with the world about him. He first has to discover the characteristics of the concrete objects of the physical world. This education may be called immediate or direct education. The second and equally important function is to enable

³⁴ B. D. Wood and F. N. Freeman, *Motion Pictures in the Classroom* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929).

the pupil to derive from his direct experience general or abstract ideas and, through reflection and reasoning, to search for and acquire explanatory principles which illuminate his direct or concrete experience. This may be called the indirect phase of education. Both phases are important and neither one is complete without the other.

The foregoing analysis has shown that the motion picture film contributes to both aspects of the child's education. It shows, however, that the film contributes by a much larger amount to the direct than to the indirect aspects. In other words, the film gives the child clear-cut notions of the objects and actions in the world about him. If we ignore certain minor types of motion picture presentation, such as animated diagrams, this comprises the chief educational effect of the film. It is natural, then, that the film should appear to be most effective when tests measure the fullness and clearness of the pupil's concrete ideas.

This is not to say that the ultimate effect of the film is confined to the development of concrete ideas. To draw such a conclusion would be to ignore completely the fundamental relationship between direct experience and thinking. The pupil can think effectively only when he has adequate material with which to think. Superiority in direct experience, then, should increase the effectiveness of the pupil's thinking, and our evidence confirms this expectation. It is on this ground that we find the X group to be superior on the questions of fact and on the questions demanding explanations as well as on the descriptive questions. The X groups not only keep abreast of the C groups in explanatory and conceptual test items, but, on the whole, show a superiority in this regard. It would be unfortunate to allow the greater superiority in descriptive questions to overshadow the very substantial superiority in explanatory and reasoning types of problems.

The foregoing discussion indicates that the film should devote itself primarily to enabling the pupils to get clear-cut and correct notions of the physical aspect of the world. This is its immediate function. The material which is to be included in the film should be selected with this in view. The ultimate purpose of securing a clear-cut, concrete idea, of course, is to promote exactness and soundness in thinking. The material which is presented to the pupil, then, should be that material which is necessary in order to furnish him with this foundation. The selection of material, of course, and the manner and context in which it is presented, must be determined by the ultimate purpose. This does not mean, however, that an attempt should be made to distort the films from their natural purpose and make them into a means of teaching abstractions directly. Mankind has invented

an instrument of abstract thought which is vastly superior to the use of objects, or of pictures of objects. This instrument is language. It is not the business of the films to supplant language. It is their business to give the pupils such direct experience as will give language rich and clear-cut meaning.³⁵

As indicated previously, motion picture films do not constitute the sum total of visual aids. Excursions, photographs and prints, exhibits, specimens and models, graphic and pictorial charts, maps and globes, the stereograph, the lantern slide, and the still film find their respective places as instructional aids. Much research needs to be added to the existing studies³⁶ to determine the distinctive contributions which each of these visual aids can make. They are instruments which the teacher can use to enhance the effectiveness of her work. They are not to be looked upon as a substitute for the teacher, for the textbook, or for other time-honored instrumentalities of the classroom.³⁷

EDUCATION BY RADIO

The use of the radio represents an entirely new supplementary aid in the work of the schools. Educational broadcasts received by schools may be classed in two general types, namely, actual lessons in basic school subjects and the stimulative "appreciation" lessons represented by the musical programs of Dr. Damrosch and the National Broadcasting Com-

³⁵ Wood and Freeman, *op. cit.*, pp. 221-222. Quoted by permission of and arrangement with the Houghton Mifflin Company.

³⁶ F. N. Freeman, *Visual Education* (University of Chicago Press, 1924).

D. C. Knowlton and J. W. Tilton, *Motion Pictures in History Teaching* (Yale University Press, 1929).

³⁷ H. E. Brown and Joy Bird, *Motion Pictures and Lantern Slides for Elementary Visual Education* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

Visual Aids, *Bulletin of the University of Kansas*, Vol. 31, No. 14 (1930).

pany and the programs of the American School of the Air sent out by the Columbia Broadcasting System.³⁸ A survey of the broadcasts desired by teachers and school administrators showed that almost every branch taught in the schools was requested, the favorite subjects, in order of preference, being music appreciation, geography and travel, literature and English, history, and health.³⁹ From meager beginnings just prior to 1928,⁴⁰ education by radio has grown to enormous proportions. A survey in 1930 indicated that 12.3 per cent of the 627 licensed stations were owned and operated by educational institutions, that 13 per cent of the broadcasting time of 271 commercial stations was considered educational, that the Damrosch Music-Appreciation Hour was reaching 150,000 schools, and that 32.6 per cent of 1,946 school superintendents reported radio-receiving equipment installed in 1,606 school buildings.⁴¹

Although education by radio has grown by leaps and bounds, it may still be said to be in embryo stages. Too many teachers still believe that radio is a novel device for distribution rather than an essentially new method of instruction. This difficulty will doubtless be removed as broadcasters put on the air programs better suited to children and school purposes. Much study and research are needed to perfect educational broadcasting techniques, to determine the aspects of education which can best be handled by radio, and to ascertain the distinct contributions which radio can make as well as its peculiar limitations. Such brief experimental studies as

³⁸ W. C. Bagley, "What the Future Holds for Broadcasting into the Schools," in *Radio and Education, Proceedings of the First Assembly of the National Advisory Council on Radio in Education* (University of Chicago Press, 1931), p. 66.

³⁹ B. H. Darrow, "The Purpose of the Ohio School of the Air," in *Education on the Air, First Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio* (Columbus, Ohio State University, 1930), p. 198.

⁴⁰ Most of the "schools of the air" have been organized since 1928.

⁴¹ Perry Armstrong, "The Status of Education by Radio in the United States," in *Education on the Air, op. cit.*, p. 83.

have been made show encouraging results.⁴² One can only speculate as to its future possibilities, especially if television is perfected for general schoolroom use. School administrators will need to study how radio broadcasts can be fitted best into an activity or project curriculum, how local teacher talent can be utilized most effectively, what kinds of equipment and receiving systems will serve the school needs in a most convenient manner,⁴³ as well as many problems that are unpredictable at the present.

THE LIBRARY AND THE MUSEUM

Libraries and museums may be classed as agencies through which services are rendered to the teachers and the pupils in carrying on the educative processes. These service departments bear a different relationship to the curriculum than books, visual aids, and the radio. The latter represent instructional tools whereas the former are service agencies whose major function is to assemble, organize, and make readily accessible to teachers and pupils certain kinds of instructional materials which can best be provided through a central department.

Fortunate indeed are the elementary schools which have been able to develop a museum of their own, even though it may be small. Frequently it is only in the larger cities that schools have access to such educational centers as natural history, art, or commercial museums. In many cities where such public museums exist those in charge of the museums have made special efforts to prepare exhibits and collections which are of particular interest and value to school groups.

⁴² W. W. Charters, "Report of Research Committee," in *Education on the Air, Second Yearbook* of the Institute for Education by Radio (Columbus, Ohio State University, 1931), pp. 255-264.

F. J. Prout, "Results of a Year's Radio Programs in an Elementary School System," in *Education on the Air, First Yearbook*, pp. 204-208.

⁴³ E. C. Blom, *Radio and Electric Power Supply Equipment for Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 409 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

Through the development of the habitat-group idea, wherein an attempt is made to arrange lifelike specimens in their natural settings, an appearance of reality is gained and the experience for the pupil is almost as complete as a visit to the actual place. Museums throughout the country have developed a system of extension service, similar to the branch-library service, whereby special collections in attractive portable cases are circulated among the schools of the city.⁴⁴ If teachers have the opportunity of having the desired exhibits delivered to the school at the opportune time, these museum collections may be used as distinctive aids to classroom instruction and usually prove much more effective and more economical of time than a visit to the museum by the class group.

The elementary-school library is a comparatively new aspect of elementary education. Its growth has been very extensive in recent years. The types of educational service that may be rendered through the library are numerous. Hence the problems pertaining to its organization and effective administration are manifold. It was thought desirable to devote a separate chapter to a discussion of these problems.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

There are a number of activities, some of which are found in nearly every elementary school, which have been classed as extracurricular. Civic clubs, home-room organizations, pupil self-government associations, welfare, housekeeping, social committees, safety patrol, school savings bank, the school newspaper, all-school assemblies, special-interest clubs, intramural athletics, school receptions, picnics, and parties are among those most commonly found in the elementary schools. Their values lie largely in the contributions which

⁴⁴ In Chicago the Field Museum of Natural History has provided extension service to schools since 1911. In New York City similar service has been given to schools since 1904.

they make toward the civic-social-moral aim broadly conceived.⁴⁵ Without question, extracurricular activities have very specific curricular functions in that they help to round out the many-sided development of children by affording types of educative experiences difficult to provide through the subject offering of the school. Extracurricular activities afford additional opportunities for pupils to demonstrate initiative, leadership, self-expression, and good citizenship.

It is unfortunate that a certain portion of the program of the school should be classed as "extra" curricular. No doubt the history of the introduction of these activities as legitimate means for utilizing pupil time is largely responsible for the unfortunate title. In the elementary school, perhaps more so than in the secondary school, the so-called extracurricular activities are definitely planned as a part of the regular program and work of the school. They are more specifically curricular in character and serve definite functions in the training of children. Instead of considering them as extracurricular, it would be far better to study each of these activities carefully to ascertain the distinctive contributions which it makes toward the development of children and then to allocate each of them its proper place in a well balanced school program. If an activity is worthy of sponsorship by the school, it should have definite educational functions and should be accorded a premeditated place in the schedule of activities.

CURRICULAR ASPECTS OF CLINICAL AND SOCIAL SERVICES

Clinical and social-service work in public schools has reached new levels of magnitude and importance in recent years. In addition to an increased concern about the general physical and mental health of children, medical, dental, and

⁴⁵ L. V. Koos, "Analysis of the General Literature on Extra-Curricular Activities," *Extra-Curricular Activities, Twenty-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II* (1926), Ch. ii.

psychological clinics are giving more attention to the exceptional and maladjusted cases. Instead of centering largely upon the detection of pupils for isolation, special-class assignment, or other commitment, the approach emphasizes more the intensive study of exceptional cases to find the causes for lack of progress or maladjustment. Exhaustive case study techniques include an investigation of the school curriculum and methods, teacher-pupil relations, the physical, mental, and emotional status of pupils, home background, and community relations. Such studies require the coöperative assistance of administrators, teachers, doctors, nurses, psychologists, visiting nurses, visiting teachers, attendance officers, and parents. With the attention centered upon the discovery and elimination of factors causing maladjustment and upon the adaptation of schoolwork to individual differences and needs so that the pupil may again become a well adjusted individual and resume normal studies toward the goals of education, clinical and social services obviously have many curricular implications and relationships. The treatment of the administrative problems pertaining to these services is reserved for another chapter.

THE LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEM AND THE CURRICULUM

In considering the curriculum, local school authorities are confronted with three basic issues: (1) fundamental curriculum considerations, the technical aspects of which include the determination of the ultimate and immediate objectives of education, the experimental discovery of appropriate child activities and other materials of instruction, and the discovery of the most effective modes of selecting and organizing the activities of the respective grades;⁴⁶ (2) adapting the curricula to the current and changing requirements; (3) planning

⁴⁶ *The Foundations of Curriculum Making, Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II* (Public School Publishing Co., 1926), p. 14.

for future community needs. The extent to which the staff in a typical school system can participate in these three forms of curriculum work is problematical. The elaborate fundamental research which is necessary to provide the evidence on which the foundations of a public-school program are to be established is not within the province of most school systems.⁴⁷ Because of the limited training of the staff, crowded teaching programs, and limited finances, such comprehensive, fundamental research must be left to the state or the largest of the cities and specialized research centers. Rather than to have each local community dissipate its energies in basic curriculum investigation it would be far better to have local systems concentrate their efforts upon the effective application of the best that has been produced by the profession. In many school systems the quality of educational service can be improved tremendously if effective adaptation and application is made of the best practices in leading educational centers. After all, the basic curriculum for public elementary education is rather universal and its ultimate objectives are not highly specialized as one goes from city to city or from city to rural districts. Investigations have shown that the American people are the most mobile people in the world. Bagley points out that "even in a relatively stable community in the Middle West it was found that more than half of the pupils in the eighth grade had attended school in two or more communities, and other studies find much higher proportions of mobile pupils. In Seattle in 1930, 80 per cent of the eighth-graders had attended school in two or more communities, and 60 per cent in three or more. Other studies have similar findings. Under these conditions, failure to have a goodly measure of uniformity in school subjects and grade-placement is a gross injustice to at least ten million school children at the present time."⁴⁸

⁴⁷ C. H. Judd, "The Place of Research in a Program of Curriculum Development," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 17 (May, 1928), p. 325.

B. H. Bode, "The Most Outstanding Next Step of Curriculum-Making in the United States," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 30 (November, 1928).

⁴⁸ W. C. Bagley, "The Task of Education in a Period of Rapid Social

It is the obligation of the staff of every local system, however, to keep abreast with curriculum developments, to scrutinize progressive theories and to determine the feasibility of their adoption, to adapt accepted theories to the local situation, to give experimental trial to curricular changes to ascertain their distinctive values and to discover the most practical methods for their application, and to study continuously the instructional work as it relates to the educational program and classroom needs. A dynamic society demands a dynamic curriculum, which, in turn, demands an active, interested, highly professionally minded instructional staff, keenly sensitive to educational trends and the changes needed in the local system to keep it abreast of the times. There will be need for constant study of the curriculum as it relates to the needs and abilities of children, the objectives of education, and the findings of research in the fields of method, grade placement of content, the psychology of learning, and the selection of content, activities, and experiences. Courses of study will need revision or amplification to make them more helpful to teachers in their efforts to apply most effectively the theories and principles which sound progressive educational thought has accepted.⁴⁹

NEED FOR LOCAL LEADERSHIP

The curriculum problems confronting a local school system are adequate in number and scope to command the best leadership the profession can provide. The amount of curriculum research that is to be undertaken in a given school system is usually decided by the central administrative staff. Available finances, training of staff, and teaching load are frequently determining factors. Even if fundamental curriculum research

Change," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 19 (November, 1933), p. 569.

⁴⁹ Florence B. Stratemeyer and H. B. Bruner, *Rating Elementary School Courses of Study* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926).

Henry Harap and Alice J. Bagne, "A Critical Study of Public School Courses of Study, Published 1929 to 1931," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 26 (October, 1932), pp. 105-109.

is not attempted, every school system will desire to keep its curriculum and methods as nearly abreast as possible with best practice and the findings of research in leading centers. There will be constant need for the kind of studies and adaptations suggested in the foregoing paragraph. Such activities require leadership of a high order. In fact, whether the curriculum in a school system is static, formal, and out of date, or dynamic, vital, and in harmony with modern psychology and educational theory depends largely upon the quality of local leadership. Some cities have found it desirable to designate certain schools as "curriculum centers" in which newly devised or adopted materials are subjected to experimental trial and perfection before they are recommended for city-wide adoption.⁵⁰

Space will not permit an extended discussion of the many different ways in which the faculty of a school system may be organized for a study of curriculum problems, or of the kinds of problems which may be undertaken in a local school. One illustration, however, will be given, representing a portion of a program for curriculum revision which was undertaken in one school system. The following excerpt is taken from a report of the program which has been carried out in Houston, Texas.⁵¹ It is quoted here in the hope that it will be suggestive and helpful.

ORGANIZATION OF STUDY GROUPS

It was generally conceded that the first step in the organization of the teachers for work on the curriculum should be in study groups. A rather elaborate organization was effected by the executive committee, involving practically every teacher employed in the Houston system. The purpose was to reveal and develop leadership through the appointment of a great many committees for study purposes.

⁵⁰ *The Special Schools and Curriculum Centers, Report of the Superintendent of Schools to the Board of Education for the School Year 1929-1930* (Cleveland, Ohio).

⁵¹ *Curriculum Revision and Development, Houston, Texas, 1924-1930* (Board of Education, Houston, Texas, 1931), pp. 27-41.

This program, carried on the first year of the curriculum revision work in Houston, yielded some very definite results:

First—After careful study the teachers selected as the general objectives of education the Cardinal Principles of Education formulated by the National Education Association. It was decided that these principles with such modifications, interpretations, and applications as might be made during the process of curriculum construction should serve as a guide to the Houston program.

1. Health
2. Command of the Fundamental Processes
3. Worthy Home Membership
4. Vocation
5. Civic Education
6. Worthy Use of Leisure
7. Ethical Character

Second—A study was made of the activities involved in ordinary living here in the city of Houston. This study was in no sense scientific in nature or method and was in no sense exhaustive, but it did serve to focus the attention of the teachers upon education as a process of interpreting to children LIFE AS IT IS NOW LIVED. It had the further value of bringing to the critical attention of the teachers the curriculum materials as then taught.

Third—A third result of this program of study by the teachers was the critical evaluation of eighteen principles upon which it was proposed to proceed in the work of curriculum revision.* These eighteen principles were suggested as a means of reducing waste in the education of the youth of the city as taught at that time. This critical evaluation of the suggested principles, under which procedure might go forward, brought much debate and demand for explanation, but it also brought much worthwhile study on the part of the teachers, and was probably the most far-reaching in its effect of anything undertaken thus far in the program. The eighteen principles proposed as a basis of procedure, evaluated, and finally accepted by the teachers of Houston, were sent out for their reaction in the following form:

* This list of principles was first published in G. D. Strayer and others, *Problems in Educational Administration*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925, pp. 594-599.

EIGHTEEN PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION THAT MAKE FOR
ECONOMY OF LEARNING

The Following Eighteen Principles Are Considered by the Executive Committee as Fundamental in Curriculum Building

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
1. Individual Differences	The curriculum does not take into consideration the individual differences of children that are the result of nationality, home life, geographical environment, special abilities or disabilities, tradition, different educational or vocational destinies.	A flexible curriculum should be constructed for Houston that will allow for the individual differences of children, whether those consist of differences in abilities, needs, or destinies.
2. Utilization of Natural Tendencies	The curriculum materials do not utilize to the fullest extent the inherited possibilities involved in the learning processes rooted in the natural tendencies as indicated by the impulsive activities and attitudes of children and youth.	Educational materials should be given in the form of activities or experiences of the individual, and these activities should properly utilize the developing natural tendencies of the child.
3. Homogeneous Grouping of Children and Individual Adjustment	Group instruction is wasteful for large groups of children of varying abilities.	There should be a homogeneous grouping and individual adjusting of children, which will allow profitable group teaching for the major portion of school work as well as for individual adjustment within the group. (See Mort, <i>The Individual Pupil</i> .)

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
4. Retardation	The lack of adaptation of the curriculum to the needs, and therefore to the interests and capacities of the child, results in retardation and, in many cases, in elimination.	The curriculum should be so constructed that it emphasizes the principle that EVERY CHILD HAS A RIGHT TO SUCCEED.
5. Intrinsic Value of Subject-Matter	There is included in the curriculum much material that has found and held its place there by force of tradition, but which has no other justification and fills no present-day social need of the child.	There should be a positive justification for all material that finds a place in the course of study. This positive justification should be based upon an increased ability on the part of the individual to grow, and should be measured in terms of behavior. Material must have intrinsic value
6. Minimum Essentials.	Practice, so far, has been demanding that all individuals should be given the opportunity of receiving a common body of knowledge while, at the same time, it has ignored the process by which knowledge is acquired.	The minimum essentials which modern educational theory asks for should be stated in terms of the fixing of ideals and attitudes, judgments and sympathies, as well as a definable body of facts. Minimum essentials, however, in these various fields can be acquired not by uniformity of materials and processes for all children, but by a choice of subject matter and methods which will bear the same relation to each child's experience, although differing in facts. This allows every child the

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
		opportunity of acquiring these minimum essentials through the medium of his own experience and the same relationship is preserved although the medium differs. (In this statement, "opportunity" should be interpreted in a broad sense, as Dr. Wm. F. Russell says: "Equal opportunity for all, but this does not mean identical opportunity.")
7. Psychological Arrangement of Subject Matter	Most courses of study present a strict adherence to the logical arrangement of subject matter. The material is presented from the adult standpoint, in logical sequence. A presentation of material to the child as organized in the textbook requires logical presentation and makes it necessary that the child proceed from synthesis to analysis, which is not the way a child learns.	A psychological arrangement of material, which will allow a child to produce a logical arrangement by a synthetic process, is in strict harmony with the learning process. The psychological arrangement of materials is concerned with seizing the special aptitudes of children in order to secure the situation that will best further their development.
8. Objective Standards	Many courses of study fail to set up objective standards of attainment and thus present no criteria of excellence as a basis for promoting and grading children.	Objective standards should be set up as far as possible for different types of material, different units of work, different ability groups of children at their various stages of growth, to be used as a basis for promotion and grading.

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
9. Habit Formation	There is frequently found to be a lack of proper technique in habit formation and a lack of discrimination as to types of materials that should be reduced to the automatic plane.	There should be a careful analysis of each unit of work and all materials of instruction with a view to determining which facts of information and which educative processes should be reduced to the automatic plane. After this, a proper technique should be established for making automatic the items selected.
10. Diagnosis	A lack of expert diagnosis of individual difficulties at the time that the difficulties are occurring results in repetition of wrong response until such responses are reduced to the automatic plane.	Expert diagnosis should be made of group and individual difficulties, and remedial measures should be provided for the use of teachers. These remedial measures should be applied in the early stages of the difficulty to prevent the formation of wrong habits.
11. Administrative Machinery	Administrative machinery is frequently too inflexible to carry out a flexible curriculum program.	Guiding principles in educational administration as well as educational method and subject matter are necessary. The so-called "educational machinery" must cease to be machinery and become a better conceived school organism that is capable of such administratively flexible adjustments that it may respond easily and quickly to the requirements of the new social curriculum program. This means that the

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
		new administrative program calls for buildings so constructed that a social curriculum program is possible; that there be flexibility in administration; and that administrative machinery be thought of as a means to an end, as an aid to the realization of educational values, rather than as the values themselves.
12. Knowledge as an Expressive Process	Over-emphasis of technique tends to destroy expression, originality, and initiative in the individual.	Teachers and administrators should get a modern conception of the educative process. One of the first points to be brought before these members of the school personnel is that a process to be educative must be EXPRESSIVE. Knowledge is a process and a method of expression, and is not static. Hence all school exercises, reciting, studying, curriculum activities, and extracurriculum activities, laboratory technique, auditorium performances, shop training, social-studies projects, socialized class meetings—all these are social processes devised as a means of natural expression on the part of the child and should be chosen on the basis of social values.

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
13. Objectives	There is a lack of proper and accomplishable objectives which may be used to define the scope and purpose of units of work and produce continuity and coördination in the school program.	Specific objectives should be set up for each unit of subject matter, for each type of work, and for each activity, to be used as controls in the accomplishment of the work. These objectives should be so stated that they may be realized by the group of children in the time that is set aside for that purpose. These objectives should be realized either in terms of actual accomplishment or in terms of progress towards the goal.
14. Elimination of Deferred Values	Much of our present curriculum work is characterized by knowledge objectives which have been set up, somewhat foreign to the experience and interests of the children; deferred values usually carry little motivating power.	All materials of instruction should be of maximum good to the extent that they are pursued. It has been shown that economic necessity is not as strong a factor in elimination of children from school as is the factor of doubt as to the value of the work for interest or success therein. Therefore, it is important that the work not only be adapted to the needs and capacities of each pupil but also presented in a convincing way. To do this, it is important that each subject should be organized so that the first year of school will be of value to those who go no farther and at the

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
		same time offer a good foundation for the work of the subsequent years. The question should be asked, "Is this the best material possible for these pupils if they were to leave school next week?"
15. The Use of Educational Research	For the last five years psychology and research have been working to develop the best methods and the best materials to be used in the educative process. The field is only partly covered so far, but educational practice is not utilizing the findings of psychology and research to the fullest extent.	<p>There are many problems involved in the making of the curriculum that should (1) be solved by methods of research, and (2) be solved by utilizing research findings already made. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. The effect of visual aid upon the efficiency of instruction. b. The relative values of different methods of instruction in various fields. c. The effects of fatigue upon the child. d. The books best adapted for the use of foreigners. e. The relative merits of instruction by the departmentalized plan as compared with the one-teacher plan. f. The "reading age" necessary for the satisfactory use of each state text. g. The mental age at which the study of numbers may most economically be introduced.

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
		<p>h. The relative value of separating the subjects of instruction in the primary grades as compared with the method of ignoring the artificial boundaries between subjects which in daily life are not thus artificially separated.</p> <p>i. The proper and most economical method of decreasing vocalization in reading, etc.</p>
16. Formal Discipline and Transfer of Training	Tradition dictates the inclusion of material in the course of study because of disciplinary values.	Modern psychology teaches that subject matter should be selected and arranged in accordance with the two outstanding principles: (1) general transfer is not automatic and inevitable, (2) there is no general, desirable disciplinary value from what is merely difficult or distasteful. There should be a positive justification for all materials of the curriculum.
17. Educational Guidance	There is much "muddling" on the part of children in the selection of their work, due to lack of knowledge as to their individual capacities, tastes, and aptitudes.	The curriculum should be so constructed that the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of pupils may be explored by means of worth-while material which will enable them to select later definite lines of work and pursue them with both pleasure and profit.

	Waste of Effort and Time on the Part of the Child is Prevalent in Practice Because:	Economy Demands That:
18. Social Basis of the Curriculum	Materials of the curriculum frequently represent knowledge divorced from the consciousness of usefulness.	Modern psychology has proved and advanced practice has demonstrated that for youth to master properly the problems of youth or to be properly equipped to master the problems of adulthood, he must be given instruction in THE CURRENT, UNORGANIZED SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF THE DAY. Therefore, the basis of the curriculum should be those activities that are found to be the activities involved in the every-day life of the men, women and children of the present time. In other words, the first duty of the school is "to teach the children to do better the desirable things they would do anyway" (Thomas H. Briggs, <i>Aims of Junior High School Education</i>). The second duty of the school is to reveal to children higher activities and to make those desired, and then to help children to realize these desires.

REORGANIZATION OF THE WORK OF CURRICULUM REVISION

As a result of the experiences of the first year of work in this new undertaking, it was thought that there should be some changes in the organization of committees in the fall of 1925. Dr. Herbert Bruner of Columbia University was brought into consultation, and the first visit modifications were made in the program. . .

In this reorganization the General Executive Committee remained the same, there being practically no change either in the organization or the personnel. The changes in the reorganization plan were principally in the sub-committees and the research committees. It has been found that there was need of a closer organization in each of the fields of subject matter, which would allow closer supervision of work and better leadership.

The most important change was the appointment of an eighth committee, called the Committee on Child Experience. This committee was chosen very carefully. It was to furnish the link between the seven different committees on subject matter. Its function was to break down subject matter barriers as well as to develop projects based upon child experience and proven best practice and thereby secure better coördination, organization, and unification of the work of teachers and pupils.

The functions of these committees were as follows:

1. The eight executive committees were appointed to head up the work, furnish leadership, organize, assign, and receive reports.
2. The committees on Research and Development were appointed to develop policies, guide in the selection of library materials, review reports of sub-committees, as well as to make studies on such subjects as best practice in other cities, best practice in Houston, grade placement, classification of pupils, objectives, subject matter of the curriculum, etc.
3. The large committees on Experimentation and Practice were to try out bits of curriculum material and various methods; to consider special problems assigned; and to contribute from their various experiences the particular units of subject matter they considered most valuable to be placed in the course of study.

FURTHER MODIFICATIONS OF THE PROGRAM

The close of the school year 1925-1926 marked the establishment of a curriculum department in connection with the Department of Research. Under the supervision of the director, twenty-five teachers

were scheduled for regular hours of work on the curriculum, being remunerated on the same basis as the teachers in the summer school.

During the school year 1926-1927 three teachers worked full time in the curriculum department, but the emergencies of the situation made it necessary for most of the time to be spent upon junior courses of study, since the junior high school building program necessitated that every effort should be made to have ready units of work suitable for use in these schools now housed in their new quarters. The summer of 1927 again found from twenty to twenty-five teachers giving from six to eight weeks to curriculum construction work, full time. Part of the time was spent in revising courses that had been in use a year in the class rooms, and important changes were made which improved the work materially. . .

METHODS OF PROCEDURE

From the foregoing list may be seen the scope of the undertaking. Much of the material is new and few, if any, precedents for its organization were to be found in the many courses of study analyzed and studied for the purpose of getting ideas of procedure. The method of work on the curriculum construction is unique in many particulars. For instance, the beginning of work for each teacher that is assigned the work of production has been a study of best practice in other cities of the United States. In this study the curriculum workers of Houston have analyzed thousands of pages of courses of study from other cities, classifying and tabulating their findings on huge charts which are available for the use of other workers that follow them. Tabulation of objectives in the different fields, grade placement and different procedures, are on file in the curriculum office for the use of those who wish to consult them. Analysis of our own textbooks has been another part of the work that has taken an enormous amount of time. Since the new organization of subject matter requires the use of textbooks in other ways than merely the methodical progression from page to page, as decided upon by the textbook writer (the materials being best used first in one sequence and then in another), page references have been provided for the teacher in order to insure the most effective use of the textbooks furnished by the state. The materials from the different texts have been collected and organized for use in the new units of work so that there is no part of the materials furnished but may be put to optimum use.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AND THE CURRICULUM

In a certain sense the curriculum which actually functions in a school rests in the hands of the classroom teacher. It is she who administers to children through her thought, word, and action the educational theories and policies of the school system. Hence it is important that teachers be intelligent about the curriculum. There is urgent need in the preparation of teachers for types of training which will give them an intelligent understanding of the school curriculum and its functions. Horn points out that at the present time a prospective teacher is rarely if ever asked his theories about the curriculum.⁵² It is not expected that he should have any. The important question is whether he is competent to teach—the material to be taught being always taken for granted. The eternal efficacy of the traditional curriculum to achieve the unformulated goal of public education seems to be taken for granted with a security that is beyond question. Such uninformed procedure on the part of the teacher can hardly be accepted in the future if it is agreed that modern education with its scientific techniques, the use and proper interpretation of mental and achievement tests, and the recognition of individual differences demands in each classroom a highly trained professional worker.

The important and direct relationship of the teacher to the curriculum is being recognized more and more and the help of teachers is sought in the development of courses of study. It is generally conceded that a course of study which no classroom teacher sees until it is handed to him in final printed form is an anachronism.⁵³ Authors of school surveys recommend that teachers assume an active part in curriculum construction. Some surveys even go so far as to say that the

⁵² J. L. Horn, *The American Elementary School* (The Century Co., 1923), p. 277.

⁵³ *Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum*, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. 3, Nos. 4 and 5 (1925), p. 18.

most important outcome of a program of curriculum revision is not the printed course of study but the growth of the participating teacher, which growth is immediately reflected in classroom procedures.⁵⁴ That school administrators also recognize the significant relation of the teacher to the curriculum is evidenced by the fact that important tasks in curriculum construction are assigned to classroom teachers. In Denver, for example:

In making up the membership of subject-matter committees the primary consideration is to make the participation of the classroom teacher the starting point. This means that the committees should be so constituted as to offer the maximum inducement to the classroom teacher to enter into the discussions unreservedly. This is not always an easy thing to do if the committees are presided over by administrative officers whose aggressiveness has been highly developed by the nature of their work. On account of this fact and also for other reasons which will be presented later, principals, directors, and supervisors in the main have not been assigned to membership on these subject-matter committees. Exceptions to this principle have been made where there was a particular reason for doing so. Only a few such exceptions have been made. Nearly the entire membership of these committees is made up of classroom teachers. Furthermore, the chairman of every subject-matter committee is a classroom teacher.⁵⁵

In addition to being in the most strategic position to interpret properly the curriculum to children, there are a number of important ways in which teachers can contribute to curriculum development. They may participate in the determination of the fundamental objectives of the curriculum as a whole and of its several departments. They may also assist in the selection of content, materials of instruction, and activities as well as the discovery of the most effective modes of organizing materials and their experimental placement in

⁵⁴ J. H. Newlon and others, "The Curricula of the Schools," *Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois*, Vol. III (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), p. 106.

⁵⁵ *The Denver Program of Curriculum Revision, Denver, Colorado, Denver Public Schools Monograph Number Twelve* (Denver, Colorado, 1927), pp. 23-24.

the grades.⁵⁰ As teachers have become more versatile in curriculum work they have given invaluable assistance in the writing of course-of-study materials. Many school systems find that one of the greatest handicaps in the speedy progression of a program for curriculum revision is the dearth of teachers who can write and produce the necessary outlines and directions for general distribution.

THE PRINCIPAL AND THE CURRICULUM

The principal has a number of important relationships to the curriculum, its reorganization and administration. In most cities principals are requested to serve as members of committees working on curriculum problems. Although, as a matter of policy, principals may not be appointed as chairmen of the various committees, teachers look to them for leadership and constructive criticism. As a member of several or all of the subject committees the principal is in a strategic position to obtain a broad view of the entire curriculum program, to coördinate the work of the various groups, and to keep his staff informed of the progress of the general curriculum-revision program.

In addition to and quite apart from his participation in the construction of curricula, the principal has important functions regarding the administration of the curriculum. As a supervisor the principal is called upon to give needed assistance in putting a new course of study into operation. It is he who must assume leadership in adapting the accepted curriculum to the peculiar needs of the local unit of which he has charge and in selecting textbooks and instructional materials. Within his building teachers may be organized into small groups or committees for studying curriculum problems which are peculiar to the locality, for developing those phases in which the general curriculum must be modified to meet conditions in the local unit, and for the selection of materials

⁵⁰ C. A. Phillips, *Modern Methods and the Elementary Curriculum* (The Century Co., 1931), p. 9.

and their coördination with the changing curriculum. Frequently it is through this field of work that a principal can exert professional leadership which will bear unusual fruit in the professional growth of teachers.

As an administrative and supervisory officer the principal is continuously responsible for the administration of the curriculum in his local school. The time schedule, the instructional program of teachers, the classification of children, in fact, all phases of school work must be organized and operated in accordance with the kind of curriculum (broadly conceived) which it is hoped will function in the school. Perhaps it is not presumptuous to say that it is within the power of the principal to control the kind of curriculum which it will be possible for teachers to provide for children in the classrooms.

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CHAPTER IV

CURRENT TYPES OF ORGANIZATION FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

One need but make a superficial visit to any one of a number of progressive schools to-day to be impressed with the effects which the developments in educational philosophy and psychology have had upon the instruction of children. The elements of democratization, individualization, and socialization which characterize present-day American educational philosophy are finding expression in a variety of ways in different school systems in the country.¹ The very complex and rapidly changing status of modern society places demands upon the program for public education which formerly were not recognized, or were considered of relatively little importance.² The rather limited program of formal subjects which characterized the elementary-school curriculum of less than fifty years ago has given way to an enlarged offering designed to assist in the attainment of the broader and more inclusive objectives of the school. Instead of intensive instruction in

¹ W. H. Kilpatrick, "The Philosophy of American Education," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 30 (October, 1928), pp. 13-23.

² "A new social order is in the making, which makes it necessary to develop a new system of education. We are shifting from an aristocratic to a democratic level. Processes of this kind are necessarily slow, in spite of all the surface changes that are going on, and for this reason the deepest problems of education remain substantially the same over long periods of time.

"The result of all this has been a need for an extensive reorganization of the schools. In the elementary school the teachers who sensed the drift and the demands of the times became anxious to eliminate from the rudimentary courses all artificial and unproductive sections, and at the same time they were eager to bring their pupils at an earlier age into contact with the rich new material which modern science has contributed as guides to industry and life." B. H. Bode, *Modern Educational Theories* (The Macmillan Co., 1927), p. 26.

five or six academic subjects, children are given extensive experience in twelve or fifteen different fields of activity to prepare them more adequately for a fuller type of living.³

The newer philosophy and the newer program have called for greater freedom in the classroom, both for the pupil and the teacher. The régime of inactivity, of sitting quietly and listening, and of rigid discipline is giving way to a type of school in which children learn to do by doing, in which activity, construction work, pupil initiative, creative self-expression, and the development of personality and social adjustment prevail. The change in point of view with reference to what children ought to do in school and what the school ought to do for children has called for modifications in school equipment;⁴ for changes in administrative and supervisory organization, relationships, and functions;⁵ and for teachers with

³ For an interesting account of the progress which has been made in some school systems, see *Fifty Years of Education in Wilmington, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools* (Wilmington, Delaware, June 30, 1931), and *Report of Progress, Birmingham Public Schools, 1921-1931, Superintendent's Report to the Board of Education* (Birmingham, Alabama, 1931).

⁴ "For many years a new spirit has been at work in primary grades everywhere. The old formal type of work, with its silence, its straight lines, its nailed down desks, has passed. We realize that we can not administer our subjects separately in set, prescribed assignments. Rather we bring about a close correlation between the curriculum and the child's growing life. Such a program calls for much material and space. Hence, in primary grades we have tables and chairs or movable desks, which may be arranged in informal groups or pushed aside. This leaves space for children to carry on their activities, games, and certain phases of their school work in a free and spontaneous way. This type of work requires not only space, movable desks and movable children, but also teachers with a movable viewpoint." *Report of Progress, Birmingham Public Schools, 1921 to 1931*, p. 32.

⁵ "The position of supervisor of the intermediate grades was created in the fall of the year 1929-1930. The fundamental purpose for creating this department was to meet better the individual needs of the pupils of these grades through helpful supervision which aims not only at the development of better attitudes and habits on the part of the pupils, but also for the improvement of instruction." *Report of the Board of Education, Kansas City, Missouri: 1928-1930*, p. 107.

better training and a different point of view.⁶ Corresponding changes in textbooks and other materials of instruction have facilitated greatly the adaptation of instruction to the needs and abilities of pupils. But the full recognition of individual differences of pupils⁷ is hardly possible without appropriate adjustments in the organization of the school.⁸ In fact, a device such as differentiated curricula for pupils of different levels of ability implies a corresponding adjustment in organization, particularly as it pertains to the classification and promotion of pupils. It is the organization, through the classification and promotion of pupils, the supervisory practices, the formation of special classes, and so on, which makes it

⁶ "In the elementary classes, the teacher furnishes the largest problem. It is difficult to find one who will throw the course of study aside and make it an experimental school, in which the interests of the child are considered first." *The Education of Gifted Children, Twenty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1924)*, p. 50.

⁷ "The Psychological Clinic has been established for the purpose of individual study of children. The psychologist keeps in close touch with principals, teachers, and social workers of the schools and gives advice and assistance on psychological questions whenever possible. The clinic is a part of the Department of Research and Efficiency and works in close coöperation with the directors and staff of that department." *Report of the Board of Education, Kansas City, Missouri: 1928-1930*, p. 109.

⁸ "Reports of investigations made throughout the United States as to the readiness for reading of children admitted to the first grade, state that at least one-fifth of these beginners are not ready for reading. Reports and investigations made in our own city as to retardation indicate that conditions here do not differ greatly from those in other parts of the country.

"In practically every school in the city there are teachers trying to teach reading to children who, because of immaturity, insufficient experience, lack of English, etc., are not ready to learn to read. Instead of learning to read, these children are wasting their time and acquiring wrong attitudes, bad habits, and a dislike for reading.

"In some schools the solution of this problem has been attempted through the organization of Pre-1A classes. In one school having a kindergarten, a combination of kindergarten and 1A work has partly solved the problem." *Sixty-First Report of the Board of Education for the year ending June 30, 1929 (Jersey City, New Jersey)*, p. 68.

possible to have differentiated methods and materials applied effectively by well trained teachers.

Although a cross-section of current practices in the organization of elementary schools shows that administrative provisions for adapting the organization to the varying needs and capacities of pupils are conspicuously lacking,⁹ there are many instances, as illustrated by the preceding footnote references, where the administrative organization has been responsive to the changing demands of educational theory. In some cases the modifications have been minor alterations which were made in an attempt to adjust an old organization to meet the new demands. In other instances fundamental and complete reorganizations (Table XVI) have been effected.

TABLE XVI

VARIATIONS FROM THE USUAL TYPE OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS, 1862-1932

Plan or Practice	Person Associated with Its Establishment	Date of Establishment
St. Louis.....	W. T. Harris	1862
Pueblo.....	P. W. Search	1888
Cambridge.....	Francis Cogswell	1893
Elizabeth, New Jersey.....	W. J. Shearer	1895
Portland, Oregon.....	Frank Rigler	1897
Batavia.....	John Kennedy	1898
North Denver.....	J. H. Van Sickle	1898
Santa Barbara Concentric.....	Frederic Burk	1898
Platoon.....	W. A. Wirt	1900
Burk's Individual.....	Frederick Burk	1913
Dalton.....	Helen Parkhurst	1919
Winnetka.....	C. W. Washburne	1919
Detroit X-Y-Z grouping.....	C. S. Berry	1919
Coöperative Group.....	J. F. Hosie	1930

⁹ H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 5 (Evanston, Illinois, Northwestern University, 1932), p. 97.

In the subsequent pages of this chapter an effort is made to describe some of the outstanding examples of plans of organization which have found their way into public-school systems to aid the elementary school in contributing more fully to the broader aims of education and in meeting the present demands of society and of educational theory.

THE PLATOON SCHOOL

In an endeavor to devise a plan of organization in which a program of studies and instructional procedures which are in keeping with the nature of the child could be carried out effectively, Superintendent William A. Wirt introduced in Bluffton, Indiana, in 1900, what has been known as the *work-study-play* or *platoon* school. The traditional elementary school with its emphasis on subject-matter knowledges had been deemed inadequate for training children for responsible citizenship in a complex social order. To give expression to a growing social philosophy of education and to provide a school in which children could really be concerned with the "business of living" instead of continued emphasis on deferred values (needs of adult life) and in which three major aspects of child life—work, study, and play—could be given proportionate emphasis, it was deemed necessary to make radical modifications in the organization of the school. "It might truthfully be said that John Dewey furnished the educational philosophy upon which William Wirt built the first platoon school and from which the platoon-school philosophy of today has developed."¹⁰ A general definition of the platoon school would characterize it as a plan of organization which provides for the division of the pupils of the school into two groups, called platoons, and which provides a schedule of classes arranged so that one platoon is studying the fundamental subjects in home rooms while the other platoon is

¹⁰ R. D. Case, *The Platoon School in America* (Stanford University Press, 1931), p. 3.

engaged with activity subjects in special rooms.¹¹ In this way the "duplicate" feature of the platoon school brings about economies in the use of the school plant.

The fundamental object of the platoon organization is to provide an administrative device by which all of the subjects in the present-day curriculum may receive proper emphasis, and may be presented under conditions that best make for the realization of the social aims of education.

To one who believes in a democracy, the aim of education is to enable each individual to develop to the fullest extent his individual powers while doing those things which are beneficial to society as a whole. Progressive educational thinkers are becoming daily more convinced that the big, impelling motive in education is the social motive. All of our schools, elementary, intermediate, secondary, and collegiate, must in the future strive to realize more fully the seven great social aims of education. The platoon school does this in a marked degree.¹²

A secondary purpose of the platoon school is to provide an organization through which the most effective use of the school plant may be made.

The sponsors of the work-study-play schools maintain that through the platoon type of organization it is possible to provide specifically for different groups of activities, each group contributing definitely to one or more of the general aims of education. The school program for each group of children is arranged in such a way (Table XVII) that one-half of the time is devoted to what are called the fundamentals while the other half of the day is given over to special subjects and activities. The fundamentals, usually consisting of reading, arithmetic, writing, spelling, language, history, and geography are taught in home rooms. Specially equipped facilities are commonly provided for such subjects as art, music, physical education, auditorium, library, nature study, home economics, and manual arts.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

¹² C. L. Spain, *The Platoon School* (The Macmillan Co., 1924), p. 48.

TABLE XVII

ALLOCATION OF SCHOOL TIME TO FUNDAMENTALS AND SPECIAL SUBJECTS
IN PLATOON SCHOOLS *

	Platoon A	Platoon B
8:30-10:00	Home Rooms (Fundamentals)	Special Rooms (8:30- 9:00) Special Rooms (9:00- 9:30) Special Rooms (9:30-10:00)
10:00-11:30	Special Rooms (10:00-10:30) Special Rooms (10:30-11:00) Special Rooms (11:00-11:30)	Home Rooms (Fundamentals)
NOON RECESS		
12:30-2:00	Home Rooms (Fundamentals)	Special Rooms (12:30-1:00) Special Rooms (1:00-1:30) Special Rooms (1:30-2:00)
2:00-3:30	Special Rooms (2:00-2:30) Special Rooms (2:30-3:00) Special Rooms (3:00-3:30)	Home Rooms (Fundamentals)

* From C. L. Spain, *The Platoon School*, p. 51.

The so-called "tool subjects" or "fundamentals" are taught in the home room, which is considered the regular school home of the pupil and is a place in which a student is under the direction and tutelage of one teacher for nearly half of each school day. Through this arrangement the home-room teacher may become somewhat of a specialist in teaching the academic subjects. The fact that she teaches several of the basic subjects to the same group of pupils ought to enable her to integrate this work for the pupil and to become more thoroughly familiar with the needs of individual pupils. Attention has already been called to the fact that one-half of the time is devoted to the work in home rooms.

The reader will recognize that no hard and fast lines can be drawn between the subjects or activities provided and the particular aims of education towards which they contribute, yet there are perhaps some activities which contribute more

towards certain objectives than to others. Contributions towards the "worthy-use-of-leisure" objective are sought particularly through such special subjects as art, music, literature, and library. Each of these is usually taught by special teachers in carefully equipped rooms.

The health program encompasses a variety of activities. Adequate gymnasiums and spacious out-door playgrounds with regularly scheduled gymnasium periods constitute essential features of a platoon-school organization. In addition to this, play periods and systematic health instruction are provided. In most schools an endeavor is made to have the health-service department, through its clinic, medical, dental, and nursing service, coöperate closely with the other health-education activities of the school.

Outcomes in the field of civic-social-moral responsibility are sought particularly through instruction in the social studies and the auditorium. The latter assumes an important place in platoon schools and is one of their distinguishing features. The auditorium is recognized as the socializing, integrating, and correlating unit in the school. The social motive is predominant in all the activities carried on therein. Through the programs and projects which are developed during the auditorium periods it is hoped that all of the child's school experiences will be integrated in a fashion not readily attainable through other methods. Endeavors are made to have the work from all the other departments of the school contribute towards the unifying experiences of the auditorium. Although the distinctive contributions of the auditorium work have not been isolated and determined, it is believed that as research and progress in this field continues, the auditorium will become a more important aspect of school programs than it now is. Among the ways in which contributions towards the civic-social aims are sought should also be mentioned the longer school day and the directed playground work on Saturdays which are found in some platoon schools located in centers where it seems desirable to extend the school's influence over

pupils during out-of-school hours. The longer school day and the Saturday playground direction are not essential features of platoon organization.

One of the features of platoon organization not so commonly found in other types of organization is teaching on the departmental plan. A report from 901 platoon schools in 154 cities shows that in 76.9 per cent of the schools all grades are platooned; 23.1 per cent of the schools leave out the first grade; 18.9 per cent leave out the first and second grades; while 10.3 per cent do not include the first three grades in the departmental organization.¹³ The kindergarten, as a rule, is not a part of the platoon schedule, although housed in the same building.

The reader may have implied from certain statements made above that the platoon organization, to be complete, requires a school plant peculiarly adapted to its program. The platoon type of organization is very flexible so that it can be adapted to many different kinds of situations. Its flexibility is manifest by the fact that hardly a single city has adopted the work-study-play program exactly as it has been developed at Gary; it can hardly be said that there is a standard plan of organization to which most platoon schools try to conform. About 70 per cent of the platoon schools in the country to-day are housed in old buildings, some of which have been altered to accommodate better the new organization while others are being used without remodeling.¹⁴ Although new buildings are not essential, it is desirable to have a school plant in which are found the facilities deemed necessary for carrying out the activities of a broader curriculum which this type of organization makes possible. Among the essential plant features are the auditorium, the gymnasium, spacious outdoor grounds on which a variety of group activities and games may be conducted, the library, and specially designed and equipped rooms for the special subjects.

¹³ R. D. Case, *op. cit.*, p. 51.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 68.

One might anticipate that any administrative plan which requires a high degree of organization through the division of pupils of each grade into two platoons, the scheduling of classes for the special and the home-room subjects, the combination of age and grade groups for auditorium and gymnasium work, and the large amount of pupil traffic from one class to another, would set up so much administrative machinery that the individual pupil would be lost sight of in the machine-like routine. Although no objective data are available as to the extent to which the individual needs of pupils are provided for in platoon schools as compared to non-platoon schools, the platoon organization as such does not preclude the recognition of individual differences of pupils. Some sponsors maintain that the platoon type of organization is uniquely adapted to make possible the recognition of individual differences. Administrative devices for this purpose which have been incorporated as a part of some platoon schools are ability grouping, subject promotion, special-help classes on Saturdays, summer make-up classes, and permitting pupils to be excused from play periods or classes in which they are doing work above the average so additional time may be spent on difficult subjects. In some schools, particularly those in Detroit, a large amount of individualization similar to the Winnetka technique is carried on.

Like many innovations, the platoon school has been subjected to critical analysis in a variety of ways. One objection frequently raised is that so much time is spent on other activities that training in the fundamental knowledges and skills is neglected. Data which have been gathered show that as much time is spent on fundamentals in platoon as in other schools.¹⁵ Such studies as have been made to evaluate the platoon schools indicate that pupils trained under the work-study-play régime do about as well in subject-

¹⁵ C. L. Spain, *op. cit.*, p. 168.

matter achievements as pupils in non-platoon schools.¹⁶ These achievements are obtained in spite of the fact that the platoon type of organization makes possible economies in teachers' salaries and building costs.

Another objection which is commonly voiced is the lack of integrated educational experience for the pupil resulting from departmental teaching. The implications of this factor will be discussed more fully in a subsequent chapter in which programs for instruction are analyzed. It seems unfortunate that the endeavors which have so far been made to evaluate the platoon plan have failed to gather objective evidence upon those features which are held to be the distinct contributions of the work-study-play type of organization. Perhaps this lack of data is accounted for by the fact that objective measurements in these fields have been difficult to obtain.

In the absence of critical and complete evaluations and in the face of the retarding influence of tradition and criticisms, the platoon type of organization has received favorable recognition in this country. Starting more or less as a novelty in one school in Gary, Indiana, in 1908 (the platoon school which Superintendent Wirt organized in Bluffton in 1900 was changed back to the traditional plan when Wirt left that city to go to Gary), the plan was gradually adopted, although in many modified forms, by other cities until in 1929 there were 1,068 platoon schools in 202 cities in forty-one states.¹⁷

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, Ch. iv.

S. A. Courtis, *The Gary Public Schools: Measurement of Classroom Products* (New York, General Education Board, 1919).

H. P. Shepherd, "Some Platoon School Results," *Platoon School*, Vol. 4 (February, 1931), pp. 176-180.

F. C. Ayer, *Studies in Administrative Research*, Department of Research, Seattle Public Schools, *Bulletin No. 1* (June 1, 1924) pp. 49-93.

¹⁷ R. D. Case, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

In a more recent article in *The Platoon School*, Vol. 7 (February, 1933), R. D. Case reports that the number of cities using the platoon system to-day is two and one-half times as large as the number using the plan in 1929.

THE WINNETKA AND THE MCDADE PLANS

The most thoroughgoing attempt to break the class lock-step procedure which has characterized the graded elementary school¹⁸ since its general adoption¹⁹ was initiated by Frederic L. Burk in the training school of the San Francisco State Teachers College in 1913.²⁰ Burk's plan of individual instruction was not introduced into public schools, however, until nearly a decade after its inception at the California normal school. Although certain features of the program have been adopted by school systems in various parts of the country,²¹ the most intensive development of its possibilities as a plan of public-school organization and procedure has taken place in the elementary schools of Winnetka, Illinois, under the direction of Superintendent Carleton W. Washburne²² and in

¹⁸ "There is a growing conviction among the more intelligent observers of our graded system of schools that there are serious defects either in the system itself or in its administration. This conviction is strongest where the schools have reached the highest degree of system and uniformity." E. E. White (Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Ohio), "Several Problems in Graded School Management," in *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (1874), p. 254.

¹⁹ "Gradually others adopted the plan (graded schools) and by 1860 the schools of most of the cities and large towns were graded. By 1870 the pendulum had swung from no system to nothing but system." W. J. Shearer, *The Grading of Schools* (New York, H. P. Smith Publishing Co., 1899), p. 21.

²⁰ Several monographs and bulletins describing the individual instruction technique and materials from kindergarten through Grade 8 were published by Dr. Burk (deceased, 1924) and his associates between 1913 and 1916, but a ruling by the California state attorney general prohibited further publication by the Normal school. This placed a distinct handicap upon the development of the individual technique at the Teachers College. It remained for some of Burk's associates, particularly Dr. Carleton W. Washburne at Winnetka, Illinois, to develop the method and apply it to public school situations.

²¹ *Cities Reporting the Use of Homogeneous Grouping and of the Winnetka Technique and the Dalton Plan*, U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, *City School Leaflet No. 22* (December, 1926).

²² The work at Winnetka was begun soon after Dr. Washburne was elected superintendent of schools in May, 1919. The individual technique was well under way during the 1920-1921 school year.

a number of elementary schools in Chicago under the direction of Assistant Superintendent James E. McDade.

The individual-instruction, or Winnetka technique, as it is better known, has as its primary objective the adaptation of instruction to the abilities of pupils. It is primarily a method of curriculum organization, but to make it possible to put the theories regarding the curriculum into operation, it was necessary to devise an organization through which those theories could be given expression. Specially prepared instructional materials,²³ classroom teaching procedures, and the organization of the school are properly adjusted to enable those in charge of the school and its instruction to apply in practice the theories of education which underlie the program. Schools organized on this plan are excellent illustrations of how organization and administrative procedures may be shaped to facilitate the expression of an educational philosophy which is deemed basic to educational practice. There may not be general agreement with the soundness of the philosophy which underlies the Winnetka technique, but that does not vitiate the above statement regarding the fundamental function of school organization.

The curriculum in the Winnetka schools is divided into two parts—"the common essentials" and "the group and creative activities."²⁴ The former consists of those knowledges and skills which presumably everyone needs to master. The assumption underlying the work in the fundamentals is that every child, irrespective of educational or vocational destination,

. . . needs to know certain elements in arithmetic, needs to be able to read with a certain speed and comprehension, needs to spell

²³ Many of the individual-instruction materials prepared by Washburne and his staff are published by Rand McNally and Company and by the World Book Company. Those prepared by McDade and his staff are published by the Plymouth Press, Chicago.

²⁴ C. W. Washburne, Mabel Vogel, and W. S. Gray, *A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools* (Public School Publishing Co., 1926), p. 15.

certain common words, needs to know something about those persons, places, and events to which reference is constantly made. Since every child needs these things, and since every child differs from others in his ability to grasp them, the time and the amount of practice to fit each child's needs must be varied. Under the old régime, in the effort to give different children the same subject matter in the same length of time, the quality of the children's work, the degree of their mastery, varied from poor to excellent, as attested by their report cards. But under the Winnetka technique of individual education, instead of quality varying, time varies: a child may take as much time as he needs to master a unit of work, but master it he must. The common essentials, by definition, are those knowledges and skills needed by everyone; to allow many children, therefore, to pass through school with hazy and inadequate grasp of them, as one must under the class lock-step scheme, is to fail in one of the functions of the school.²⁵

Progress in the common essentials is strictly individual. Each child progresses through each unit of work at his own rate. He stays on one phase of the work until he masters it and then goes on to the next. The time required by the child to finish each particular unit of any of the common essentials varies greatly. The units of work are distinctly units of achievements, not units of time. . . . The general technique by which this individual progress is brought about consists of (a) breaking up the common essentials curriculum into very definite units of achievement; (b) using complete diagnostic tests to determine whether a child has mastered each of these units, and, if not, just where his difficulties lie; and (c) the full use of self-instructive, self-corrective practice materials.

Except in speed in arithmetic, the standards of achievement are the same for all children. When a child has reached standard, he moves on to the next unit of work. There are, of course, reviews and a child must reach standard repeatedly. . . . The units of achievement are called "goals." These goals are specific. Instead of saying, for example, that a child must learn Column Addition during third grade, the Winnetka schools say that the child must be able, before leaving third grade arithmetic, to add columns three digits wide and four digits high at the rate of three in three minutes with one hundred percent accuracy. An effort has been made to define each goal in each of the common essentials with equal definiteness.

These goals are printed in abbreviated form on a large card

²⁵ C. W. Washburne, "Burk's Individual System as Developed at Winnetka," in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II (1925), p. 79.

supplied for each child. As a child progresses from one goal to the next, the date of completing each goal is recorded by the teacher on this goal card. At the end of six weeks the child connects the last recorded dates of all subjects with a red line. Thus his progress by subjects and as a whole is graphically shown from one six-weeks period to the next. On the back of the goal card the child's group-spirit, orderliness, initiative, etc., are indicated by check marks after appropriate descriptive paragraphs. This goal card, with full explanation of the various goals, is sent to parents in lieu of the ordinary report card.²⁶

The second part of the curriculum, the "group and creative activities," includes the development of appreciation of literature, music, and art; playground activities; assemblies; hand-work of various kinds; projects which are an end in themselves rather than a means to the mastery of subject-matter; discussions (again not for the purpose of learning common essential facts); and much of the color material and background of history and geography. The assumption is that these are the fields in which the results achieved by children may legitimately differ. There is no *common* skill or knowledge to be mastered. These activities are included because it is the school's job to provide opportunities for self-expression and for the development of the special interests and abilities of each individual. It is in this part of the curriculum that the Winnetka technique recognizes the variations in interests and needs of pupils. In the work in fundamentals or "goals" only differences in rate of achievement, not in amounts, are recognized.

To make possible a proportionate emphasis upon these two aspects of the curriculum and to give expression to the educational theories which underlie this type of program, the organization makes provision for the division of the school day in such a way that one-half of each forenoon and afternoon is given over to individual work in the common essentials, while the other half of each session is given to group and creative

²⁶ C. W. Washburne, Mabel Vogel, and W. S. Gray, *op. cit.*, pp. 16-17.

activities. During the time devoted to individual work in the common essentials, every child works on his own job, or unit. If one should step into an arithmetic class—for example, a fourth-grade room—one might find one child just completing third-grade arithmetic, another beginning compound multiplication, another in the middle of long division, while still another beginning fifth-grade work in fractions. A child may be doing fourth-grade arithmetic during one period, but a few minutes later, in the same room, be doing fifth-grade reading. There are no recitations in the common essentials. Each child, when he has completed a series of units and has tested himself upon them, asks the teacher for the mastery test. Thus all of the teacher's time is spent in teaching, not in hearing recitations. She moves about among the pupils and gives assistance and instructions wherever they are needed.²⁷ There are no failures and no child ever "skips a grade."

Another interesting feature of the organization consists of the methods used in classifying and promoting pupils, that is, determining the "grade room" in which the pupil is to be placed. Pupils are classified largely on the basis of age and social maturity. In general, children sit with others of approximately the same age and, roughly, the same general degree of grade advancement. Since progress in the common essentials is entirely individual, any pupil may readily be transferred from a room in which the environment does not seem to fit him to a room in which he can feel that he is among his peers and participate more happily in the group and creative activities. Individual progress in common essentials and the absence of examinations and promotional standards in group and creative activities gives flexibility to the classification and promotion of pupils which is unique. Such extreme flexibility in organization has been found difficult to obtain in schools in which group instruction prevails, and in which teachers of a given grade are delegated with the responsibility of administering a certain portion of a prescribed

²⁷ Summarized from *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook*, *op. cit.*, p. 80.

course of study to the pupils assigned to them. No doubt those in charge of other types of schools could gather valuable suggestions for the organization of their schools from this phase of the Winnetka program, even though they may not agree with the basic theories which underlie school procedures such as the Winnetka technique.

The essential difference between the individual-instruction technique as developed by Washburne in Winnetka and McDade in Chicago is that in the latter plan the special instructional materials consist of shorter units. It is McDade's view that instructional materials should be organized into units of such size that they can readily be fitted into the program of teaching for any child. With the shorter units it becomes possible to select for any pupil only those which he should use. The claim is made that the latter type of material meets better the needs of schools which have large classes and which cannot effect a complete reorganization of their work.²⁸

The type of educational procedure which is given expression through such plans of organization as the Winnetka and the McDade has not gone without criticism. It has provoked some interesting discussions in educational philosophy. The following is a statement by Kilpatrick:

The term "the common essentials" is used at Winnetka to refer to subject-matter content assigned for learning by "goals." By this Mr. Washburne means "certain knowledges and skills needed by every child." That there are certain knowledges and skills needed by every child need not be disputed; but there are decided difficulties with the implications. First, it is implied that such an "essential" can be learned in isolation from its "natural setting" (to use Charter's term). This, it would seem certain, is only partially true. Second, it is implied that as large a body of such "essentials" can be definitely named. The more definitely this is tried, the further off does agreement seem to betake itself. Third, it is implied that "the common essentials" should consist exclusively of "knowledges" ("facts" were perhaps a better term) and skills. Surely this cannot be true. To leave out common honesty and truthfulness from any list of "common

²⁸ L. J. Brueckner and E. O. Melby, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), p. 44.

essentials" is at once to queer the list. Why are they omitted? Is it that they are not needed? Certainly not. The reason they are omitted is that they do not lend themselves to assignments by "goals." In other words, the phrase "the common essentials," carried with it just a shade of rationalization. The content is chosen on one basis, a name that implies a better basis is then given. Not "the common essentials," but "some common essentials that lend themselves to self-teaching assignment"—these constitute the content of the first part of the Winnetka scheme.

And what now is the conclusion of Winnetka's plan of learning by goals? First and foremost it tends to break the child's learning into two disconnected parts. One part, highly mechanical, belongs to the system of goals—a system too nearly complete in itself, too little connected with life. Stated psychologically, the danger is that learning will not transfer. Stated in terms of life, the danger is a divided self—that the child will look on learning as something apart from life, something to be "learned" and then put behind him. If it be rejoined that the classwork at Winnetka counteracts this danger, the answer comes that the freer work does seem to be in far greater degree continuous with life, but the gap still remains between the individual drill work and the freer group work. The two parts of school do not connect. And unfortunately, in the whole discussion at Winnetka, learning by goals seems to be counted as essential. The chosen term implies it, and it is only the time saved from the goal work that is available for the other. If further rejoinder be made that the children are happy, that they like not only the freer group work but quite as well to work for goals, then we have to say that present happiness, though good, can never be taken by itself as final. The question of long run effect must decide. That the Winnetka plan of goals is a better way of doing many of the things the ordinary school tries less successfully to do, may well be admitted. But unless the danger of little transfer and the danger of divided self can be better safeguarded, the present writer, for one, does not believe that learning by goals will continue to hold its present prominence at Winnetka.²⁹

Although the most thorough test of the feasibility of the individual-instruction technique has been made in the elementary schools of Winnetka and Chicago, other school systems have adopted certain features of it, if not the entire plan. Of the 280 superintendents in cities with populations of 10,000

²⁹ *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, pp. 280-281 and 284-285.

or more who reported to the Bureau of Education in 1926, forty-three indicated the use of the Winnetka technique in some phase or other in various school grades.³⁰ No doubt the fact that the necessary specialized materials have been made available by book publishers has enabled many schools to introduce this type of work in recent years. Of course it is possible to use the individual progress materials simply as an aspect of teaching procedure without effecting any changes in the organization as such. Wherever this has been done it seems unfortunate that the pulse of organization was not responsive to the changes in administrative practices which are made possible by the developments in teaching materials and methods.

Perhaps one of the most extensive attempts to evaluate any type of school organization is represented by the surveys which have been made to ascertain the effectiveness of the training given under the individual technique at Winnetka. During the school year 1923-1924 an extensive survey, including an age-grade census, academic achievement, time allotments, concentration of pupil attention, teacher load, costs, and the high-school achievements of Winnetka graduates, was conducted.³¹ Comparisons were made with similar items of data secured from three other school systems. At a later date another investigation pertaining to the success in high school of the Winnetka graduates was made.³² Although the more comprehensive analysis of the evaluation of school organization is reserved for a later chapter, a general statement may be opportune at this point. In general, the surveys show (Table XVIII) that in terms of such tests as were available the Winnetka schools are doing distinctly effective work—work which on the whole is more efficient than that done by comparable schools which use class methods of instruction.

³⁰ *City School Leaflet No. 22, op. cit.*, p. 10.

³¹ C. W. Washburne, Mabel Vogel, and W. S. Gray, *op. cit.*

³² Carleton Washburne and L. E. Rath, "The High-School Achievement of Children Trained Under the Individual Technique," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 28 (November, 1927), pp. 214-224.

TABLE XVIII

PER CENT THAT WINNETKA SCORES ARE OF THE AVERAGE SCORE OF SCHOOLS STUDIED *

("Test" and "Supplementary" Winnetka Groups Are Here Combined)

Test	M.A.†	M.A.	M.A.	M.A.	M.A.	M.A.
	8-9	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-13	13-14
Burgess Silent Reading.....	113	106	103	102	102	...
Spelling.....	99	98	99	97	96	98
Language.....	123	113	116
Cleveland Arithmetic.....	127	108	111	116	98	100
Winnetka Arithmetic (speed).....	...	108	160	135	111	106
Winnetka Arithmetic (accuracy)	110	120	106	98	106

* From C. W. Washburne and others, in *A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools*, p. 79.

† Mean average.

THE DALTON PLAN

The Dalton Laboratory Plan is unlike the Winnetka technique in that it is not primarily a curriculum experiment, but rather an endeavor to give expression to a sociological philosophy of education through the curriculum which is commonly accepted. The Dalton plan aims to achieve its sociological objectives by centering upon and socializing the life of the school.

Briefly summarized, the aim of the Dalton Plan is a synthetic one. It suggests a simple and economic way by means of which the school as a whole can function as a community. The conditions under which the pupils live and work are the chief factors of their environment, and a favorable environment is one which provides opportunities for spiritual as well as mental growth. It is the social experience accompanying the tasks, not the tasks themselves, which stimulates and furnishes both these kinds of growth. Thus the Dalton Plan lays emphasis upon the importance of the child's living while he does his work, and the manner in which he acts as a member of society, rather than upon the subjects of his curriculum.³³

³³ Helen Parkhurst, *Education on the Dalton Plan* (E. P. Dutton and Co., 1929), p. 29.

The author of the Dalton plan has indicated three fundamental principles which must be recognized in applying the above theory.³⁴ The first principle is freedom—freedom for an individual to pursue his interests, to work without interruptions, and to develop concentration. This freeing process is the essential contribution of the plan.³⁵ The second principle is coöperation and interaction of group life, or community living. The third principle is the apportionment of effort to attainment, or budgeting time.

To facilitate the application of these principles and theory, an organization has been developed which has many features not commonly found in graded schools. The subjects of study are divided into two groups. One group consists of the academic subjects such as reading, mathematics, physical science, composition, spelling, grammar, history, geography, art and handicraft; the other group consists of the physical, social and emotional subjects such as physical training, literature, excursions, nature study, and lantern lectures. The academic subjects are taught largely on the basis of individual pupil progress while the latter group of subjects are taught by the class method. The work for each grade in each of the academic subjects is laid out in a series of related jobs, or contracts. Each job consists of a number of smaller units, perhaps fifteen or twenty, the total comprising an amount of work which can usually be done within a school month of twenty days. A child is permitted to progress at his own rate through the units of each job, but before he is allowed to begin the work of another job in the same subject he must also have completed the corresponding jobs for each of the other subjects he is taking. At least once each month the pupil is expected to show an "even front" in all the subjects, thus preventing continued emphasis on favored subjects and neglect of more

³⁴ Helen Parkhurst, "The Dalton Laboratory Plan," in the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II (1925), p. 84.

³⁵ Evelyn Dewey, *The Dalton Laboratory Plan* (E. P. Dutton and Co., 1922), p. 6.

difficult ones. Extensive individual and group progress charts are kept. Daily class recitations are greatly reduced in number. Each teacher usually plans to have at least one group discussion per week for each subject in each grade. At this time new topics may be presented, controversial issues debated, or doubtful problems clarified. The rest of the teacher's time is consumed in assisting individual pupils or small groups of pupils.

The organization for administering the program provides for a specially equipped room or laboratory for each of the subjects. Each laboratory is in charge of a teacher who is a specialist in his field. During the free period in the forenoon (usually from 9:30 to 12:00) all pupils from any of the grades (that is, Grade 4 and above) who choose to work upon a certain subject, congregate in the designated laboratory, each child pursuing his own contract. Pupils of the same grade and similar degrees of advancement are encouraged to assemble in one section of the room, thus working and conversing with others of their own age. Pupils also mingle with and seek assistance from their older associates. It is hoped that in this way the school more nearly duplicates community life outside of school. Each room is in reality an ungraded school in which pupils from three or more grades, depending upon the number of grades in the school, pursue the same subject. If the enrollment in the school is so large that more than one laboratory of each kind must be equipped, the pupils are divided into divisions of 200 or 250 students, each division consisting of children from all grades to secure the mingling of all age groups.

To gain greatest returns from instruction under the Dalton plan it has been found desirable to include only Grade 4 and above, because from the fourth grade on students have usually acquired enough of the basic tools for learning so independent study may be carried on. The conventional concept of school grades is retained and contracts are planned in terms of the conventional curricula for the various grades. The use of a

central library is reduced in those Daltonized schools in which they have found it desirable to distribute the most frequently used reference materials to the different laboratories where they are most needed. For the group activities, especially those of the afternoon, children are classified on an age basis; those of ages nine, ten, and eleven comprise one group; the second group consists of eleven- and twelve-year-olds; the third group of twelve- and thirteen-year-olds; and the fourth group of thirteen- and fourteen-year-olds.³⁶

The Dalton idea as a plan of organization has met with greater favor in European countries than in the United States. It has been applied more extensively to high-school work than to the elementary grades. It was first introduced by Miss Parkhurst in 1919 in an ungraded school for crippled children. In 1920 the plan was adopted in the high school at Dalton, Massachusetts, hence the name "Dalton Plan." No doubt those in charge of elementary schools have hesitated about its adoption *in toto* because of the uncertainty of the ability of grade-school pupils to budget time effectively. Reports show that more than half of the forty-four superintendents in cities having populations of 10,000 or more, who indicated the use of the Dalton plan, or a modification of it, in 1926, are applying it to one or more of the elementary grades.³⁷ Recently the plan has been subjected to an extensive experimental trial in some of the platoon schools of Detroit, Michigan.³⁸ Certainly it merits careful examination for the possibilities which it has for facilitating the adaptation of instruction to individual differences.

³⁶ This description has been summarized from the two previous references to the works of Miss Helen Parkhurst.

³⁷ *City School Leaflet No. 22, op cit*, pp. 7-9.

³⁸ W. Vreeland, "Detroit's Experiment on Individualization," *School and Society*, Vol. 32 (September 20, 1930), pp. 398-402.

THE COÖPERATIVE GROUP PLAN

On the assumption that the form of organization for elementary schools, which developed nearly a century ago and which has remained in operation until the present time with only relatively insignificant modifications, had outlived its period of usefulness and was lingering on into a period when the obligations facing the school demand a new type of program and a new curriculum which cannot be given adequate expression through an outgrown organization, Dr. James F. Hosis and his associates set about to devise a plan of organization which would be in harmony with and facilitate the carrying out of the new program.³⁹ The plan has been called "The Coöperative Group Plan." To serve as guides in planning the organization, Hosis has outlined a series of eleven propositions. Space cannot be given here to discuss fully each of the propositions as the author has done in a twenty-three page monograph.⁴⁰ Dr. Hosis calls attention to the fact that the proposals are to be considered in their entirety; the suggestions are not to be taken piecemeal. He also points out that quantitative terms have been avoided intentionally.

Good schools will not result from the general application of a formula. The individual differences of communities, principals, and teachers must be recognized as well as those of children. A sound scheme of organization must, in the nature of things, be flexible. This consideration calls for principles, not formulas.⁴¹

The propositions, summarized from Dr. Hosis's monograph, are as follows:

1. The purpose of the elementary school (for children from four or five to twelve or thirteen years of age), stated in terms of the indi-

³⁹ J. F. Hosis, L. T. Hopkins, and Student Committees, *The Coöperative Group Plan for the Organization of Elementary Schools* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

⁴⁰ J. F. Hosis, *The Coöperative Group Plan: Working Principles for the Organization of Elementary Schools* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929).

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

vidual, is to give each of the pupils who attend it the best possible opportunity for growth as a person.

2. The purpose of the elementary school (for children from four or five to twelve or thirteen years of age), stated in terms of society, is to fit each child to participate as helpfully and happily as possible in the home and community life of the present and the near future.

3. A teacher can usually best assist in carrying out the purposes of an elementary school by undertaking not the whole but only a part of the educational stimulation and guidance of individual pupils and groups of pupils.

4. Each teacher in the elementary school should plan and carry on her work coöperatively as a member of a group of teachers who have the same pupils in charge.

5. Every group of teachers in the coöperative plan of organization should be led by one of their own number, designated chairman, or group leader.

6. Each group leader or chairman should bear a portion of the responsibility for the supervision of the teaching done by the other members of his or her group.

7. Every teacher in the elementary school should have a classroom especially designed and equipped for the age of pupil and particular type of activity she is expected to stimulate and guide.

8. The subjects or activities of the school course intended for certain groups of children in charge of a single group of teachers should be closely related. Not more than six types of activities should be recognized.

9. Even though five teachers, more or less, share the work of guiding the activities of a group of children, as proposed in the Coöperative Group Plan, nevertheless each of them should bear special responsibility for the welfare of one portion of the group, that is, for a "class."

10. The distinction between "special" subjects and "regular" subjects as applied to the program of a modern elementary school should be dropped.

11. To attempt to distinguish between "curriculum" and "extra-curricular activities" is also unfortunate.

With the above propositions as the theoretical basis for the reorganization of elementary schools, individuals and committees, under the direction of Dr. Hosic, began to formulate a plan of organization in which those principles could be applied effectively. Some of the essential features of the tentative proposal are given here.

Specialization in teaching is provided in all grades. It is recommended, however, that no teacher cover a grade range of more than three years. Each teacher is to be, not a "subject specialist" as frequently found in high schools, but a specialist in teaching children the experiences, abilities, and attitudes which can be attained through certain related fields. In the primary school (Grades 1 to 3 inclusive) there would be four teachers, each in charge of one of the following special rooms and phases of work: (1) Library: literature, composition, story-telling, reading, spelling; (2) Museum: elementary science, arithmetic, health, social studies; (3) Arts and crafts: fine and industrial arts, writing; (4) Recreation room: music, dramatization, program planning, physical training, playground activities. Each of these rooms would be especially equipped with the essential materials and used only by the pupils of the three lower grades. Several rooms of each type may be fitted if the enrollment is adequate. For Grades 4, 5, and 6 a total of five rooms is proposed, namely, the social-studies laboratory, the science laboratory, the English-work room, the arts and crafts room, and the recreation room.

The main feature of the plan, the characteristic from which the plan perhaps derived its name, is the organization of the teachers of a school into small coöperative groups, each of which is led by one of its own members who acts as chairman. Their common interest is the pupils whom they teach. They are brought together, not because they teach the same subject, but because they have the same children. Each group is composed of from three to six teachers, depending upon the size of the school and the grade level. The teachers plan their work coöperatively to obtain the maximum of integration in the educative experiences of the children. For this purpose an integration chart is used in planning the work.⁴² The regular curriculum of the school may be used since the Coöperative Group Plan is not in itself a plan of curriculum revision. The

⁴² For a sample integration chart, see J. F. Hosie and L. T. Hopkins, *op. cit.*, pp. 12-15.

chairman or leader of each group will assume at least a portion of the supervisory responsibility. The need for itinerant special or general supervisors will be minimized or eliminated entirely. If the group leaders consist of the best qualified and professionally trained teachers, the organization of the school will give an opportunity for able persons to exert influences of leadership beyond the confines of a single classroom.⁴³

Although specialization in teaching is a characteristic feature of the plan, there are to be no "special subjects" such as are commonly found in schools at present. The arbitrary and perhaps unsound distinction between "regular" and "special" subjects is to be discarded. Likewise the distinction between "curricular" and "extracurricular" activities is to be abandoned. All activities valuable for educative experiences which are deemed appropriate for the school to encourage and to assume jurisdiction over are to be considered an integral part of the work of the school and emphasized in proportion to the contributions which they are assumed to make. The school day will be divided into perhaps four or five parts, the children spending each part in one of the rooms and with a certain teacher. It is hoped that growth and continuity of pupil progress will be facilitated through contact with the same group of teachers over a period of three years.

The Coöperative Group Plan is a distinctly new venture. It may well be classified among the attempts to devise a plan of organization which would be in harmony with the aims and functions of the twentieth-century elementary school and through which expression can be given more adequately to present educational theories. It is too early at this writing to evaluate this new proposal. It is being tried in a number of representative public-school systems and measures of its effectiveness and feasibility will no doubt be available in the near future.

⁴³ Fred Engelhardt, "Differentiation in Classroom Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 16 (April, 1930), pp. 321-329.

ORGANIZATION IN SMALL ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The problem of providing an organization for a small elementary school in which adequate provision is made for the varying abilities of pupils becomes more difficult because of the existence of many handicaps which do not confront the principal of a larger school. If the enrollment is not large enough so that each grade group consists of the requisite number of pupils desired for assignment to one teacher, class groups are frequently composed of pupils from two or more adjoining grades. Under such circumstances there is little opportunity for the division of the pupils of a single grade into two or more teaching groups (sometimes called the A and B divisions of a grade or X-Y-Z groups). Usually the individual-instruction materials which are now on the market are not available to the particular district because of the retarding influences of tradition, lack of funds, inadequately trained teachers, lack of consistent administrative policy due to frequent turnover of principal and teachers, etc. As a result a traditional school, formalized in its practices and limited in its offering, is maintained. These statements are perhaps all the more true if the school is situated in a small rural community. There is no thought here of implying that progressive schools are found only in large cities, or that a good, modern type of organization is impossible in a small school. In fact it is not clearly known what part the size of enrollment plays in determining the extent to which a desirable organization can be set up. The fact remains, however, that small schools have found it difficult to incorporate the practices which other schools have thought desirable in adapting the organization to provide for individual differences of pupils.

In an endeavor to overcome the disadvantages inherent in a school with a small number of pupils and a limited staff, and in an effort to keep the organization responsive to the changing demands in education, many school systems have found it necessary to break away from the traditional prac-

tices. Various devices have been applied in different schools, each one of which no doubt has been more or less practicable in its local situation. One such attempt to provide better for individual differences was tried in a small five-teacher, eight-grade elementary school in a small rural community, and may be briefly summarized here, merely to illustrate a type of modification feasible for a small school.⁴⁴

The essential characteristic of the plan is the classification of children on a non-graded basis. The customary grade classification was disregarded and the pupils of Grades 3 to 8, inclusive, were placed in groups in reading, arithmetic, language, and spelling according to the levels of achievement to which they, as individuals, had attained in any of these subjects. The procedure thus placed each child in a class or grade group in each of the four mentioned subjects in accordance with his achievement in that subject, regardless of his progress in other studies. Thus a certain child might be found in the sixth-grade arithmetic class, in the fourth-grade spelling class, and in the fifth grade in all other subjects. Standardized mental and achievement tests were used as major guides in determining pupil placement. Group teaching was continued, but within each room the class organization was very flexible. In each subject each teacher maintained from two to five or six groups. Pupils could thus be shifted readily from group to group, depending upon the needs of pupils and the type of work being done. Extensive diagnostic and remedial teaching was carried on.

The classification of pupils by subjects made it necessary that the program of classes be arranged in such fashion that any child would be free to change from grade to grade, or from room to room, according to his placement. This was made possible by having the same subject taught in all six of the grades at the same hour. Arithmetic, for example, was

⁴⁴ H. J. Otto, "The Classification of Elementary-School Pupils on a Non-Graded Basis," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 75, No. 6 (December, 1927), pp. 35-37.

taught in each of Grades 3 to 8, inclusive, from 9:00 to 9:40 A.M. The other subjects taught during the morning session, namely, language and grammar, penmanship, reading, and spelling, were arranged similarly. At the end of each class period such pupils as needed to shift to another group or room for the succeeding class readily did so. At the end of the year pupils were promoted by subject, rather than by grade, in each of the studies named above. The high-school program was properly articulated so that it was convenient for pupils to do part of their work in the high-school department and part of it in the grades. By increasing slightly the size of classes in the elementary school, one of the five teachers was relieved during the morning session. This teacher was engaged in diagnosing pupil difficulties, doing remedial teaching, and aiding in the preparation of materials for use in the regular classes. Through close coöperation with all teachers in the school, this teacher's work became a valuable adjunct to the school program.

During the afternoon session, in which the other subjects and activities were offered, subject classification was not practiced. Each grade group became a unit in itself. Each child became a member of his regular grade class, that is, the grade group in which he would have been if subject classification had not been introduced. Also, during the afternoon session, the remedial teacher took full charge of the second grade, thus leaving the first grade with the individual attention of one teacher. Since the total number of pupils in the first two grades was only about thirty-five, each of these classes was small and a much larger amount of individual assistance could be given.

The program as outlined above no doubt has many features which can be improved upon, particularly as continued progress is made in the preparation of tests for the diagnosis of pupil needs and abilities and of instructional materials. The plan, however, is suggestive of types of modifications which may be made in small schools to improve the teaching and

learning situation. Although subject classification was practiced extensively in the elementary schools of Ohio ⁴⁵ in 1925, this particular plan for its administration was first introduced in the public school at Buffalo Lake, Minnesota. The subject classification feature is still in operation there. Owing to a reduction in the school budget, the "remedial room" has been discontinued. The latter feature of the plan was adopted by the public schools of Ortonville, Minnesota, and an attempt was made to evaluate the instructional results accruing from the intensive work which was made possible.⁴⁶ The teacher in charge of the special work in the two towns named above, is now in charge of similar work in the public schools of Barrington, Illinois. In the latter two cities the functions of the "remedial teacher" have been extended so that, in addition to the remedial teaching, this person has become a professional assistant to all the teachers in the elementary school, aiding them in diagnosing pupil and teacher difficulties and guiding the work in course-of-study construction.⁴⁷ The remedial teacher has in reality become a most effective type of supervisor, although not clothed with an administrative or supervisory title and responsibilities. Perhaps one of the essential elements in the effectiveness with which the work of the remedial teacher has permeated the work of the school and has brought about improvement in teaching and learning is the fact that this person, devoid of authority, was working with teachers as a helper rather than as an administrative officer. The whole scheme represents a venture in the organization for supervision which may be worthy of attention.

⁴⁵ B. R. Buckingham (Chairman), *The Classification of Pupils in Elementary Schools* (Columbus, Ohio, F. J. Herr Printing Co., 1925).

⁴⁶ H. N. Peterson, *The Administration of a Program of Remedial Teaching*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Minnesota Library, 1929.

⁴⁷ Copies of the courses of study which the teachers have prepared under the leadership of Miss Lenore Torgrimson may be obtained from the Superintendent of Schools, Barrington, Illinois.

THE ALL-YEAR SCHOOL

The term "all-year school" has been applied to school systems which operate the complete program or curriculum throughout the calendar year.⁴⁸ In some schools which operate on the all-year plan each child attends during the entire twelve months while in other districts the classes are "staggered" so that the total enrollment during any one quarter is approximately equal to that in each of the other quarters of the year. Under the latter arrangement each pupil is expected to attend three out of the four quarters, thus placing one-fourth of the school population on vacation during each quarter.

The all-year school should not be confused with the plan administered in some cities whereby a nine- or ten-month academic year is followed by a summer school.⁴⁹ As a rule the offering in elementary summer schools is confined to scheduled classes in academic subjects, the chief purpose of which is to assist backward and failing students to complete their grade or to enable superior pupils to skip a grade or half-grade. Frequently pupils attend only during the hours for which are scheduled the specific subjects they are to take. It should also be remembered that the all-year school does not represent a particular type of internal organization for elementary schools, but merely means the year-round operation of such form of organization as happens to be in existence.

A number of advantages have been posited for the all-year school. In congested centers there are many children who perhaps should have opportunity for schooling during all periods of the year. Continuous attendance throughout the year would decrease the vacation street hazards, diminish the loss in pupil efficiency caused by a two- or three-month

⁴⁸ E. N. Lane, "The All-Year School—Its Origin and Development," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 9 (March, 1932), pp 49-52.

⁴⁹ During 1929-1930, 251 city school systems reported elementary summer schools in which were enrolled 265,821 pupils. *Biennial Survey of Education: 1928-1930*, Vol. II, Ch. iii, p. 20.

absence from studies, and provide a more wholesome environment than some children find during vacation periods. Benefits should accrue to overage and retarded pupils as well as to superior pupils who may be encouraged to complete the elementary course in less than standard time. Perhaps some of the most vital arguments for the all-year school are the greater utilization of school plant, lower cost of operation during summer months, and, if the three-quarter plan with staggered vacations is followed, lower building costs.⁵⁰

The all-year school has also been subjected to adverse criticism. It has been contended that children should not be expected to attend school during hot summer months, that the vacation is needed for healthful, outdoor activity, and that the mental, nervous, and physical strain of school attendance should be broken by an extended summer vacation. The health of teachers is likewise an important factor. Experience has demonstrated the undesirability of using the all-year plan to hurry children into high school at immature ages. Some administrators also point out that, if staggered vacations are granted, the class organization in schools of small enrollment are so broken up that it becomes necessary to assign three or four grades to a single teacher.

Although much has been written about the all-year school, very few cities operate their schools on this plan.⁵¹ The arguments pro and con are largely theoretical and have little foundation in the established results of research. Experimental evaluation of the all-year school has been limited in scope and character. A comprehensive survey, made in 1926, of the public schools of Newark, New Jersey, which had been on the all-year plan since 1912, showed that the all-year schools were not doing what was originally claimed for them. The survey committee found, however, that the all-year schools were

⁵⁰ H. R. Vanderslice, "The All-Year School in Aliquippa, Pennsylvania," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 30 (April, 1930), pp. 576-585.

⁵¹ E. N. Lane, *op. cit.*

doing extremely valuable work and rendering a great service, particularly to children of foreign parentage and unfavorable home conditions. The survey staff recommended that, since the additional cost was not excessive in terms of the service rendered, the all-year schools be continued.⁵² Reports from Nashville, Tennessee, indicate that the all-year plan is meeting with approval there. In 1929 the Committee on Organization and Administration of the Teachers' Council, New York City, recommended that the proposal to adopt the all-year school be abandoned and that the present system be continued in New York City.⁵³

Doubtless any future evaluations of the all-year school will be expressed in terms of teacher and pupil health, child growth, the social welfare of children, and economic values rather than in terms of the number of failures made up, the number of grades skipped, or the extent to which pupils are hurried into high school at earlier ages. The all-year school will probably serve its greatest usefulness in congested areas in which are found children of foreign parentage and unfavorable home environment.

THE PROGRESSIVE SCHOOLS

There are few terms in professional literature which have been so misunderstood and diffusely interpreted as "progressive education." It is difficult to find a concise and delimiting definition of a "progressive school." This ambiguity is perhaps due to the fact that the so-called progressive movements have taken place in so many different aspects of education in the various schools. Not only have different schools attacked different problems, but different schools

⁵² W. S. Deffenbaugh, *Recent Movements in City School Systems*, Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1927, No. 8, p. 20.

⁵³ Committee on Organization and Administration of the Teachers' Council, New York City, "Report of the All-Year School," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 30 (March, 1930), pp. 509-518.

have attacked the same problems in different ways. It may be said, however, that the accumulated findings of the child-study movement have gradually led many educators to realize that the organization and procedures of the traditional school were not in harmony with the characteristics and needs of growing children.⁵⁴ Consequently, changes of one kind or another were inaugurated in various schools. Generally the modifications in practice resulted in procedures which give more attention to the needs of individuals, stimulate learning through self-directed, purposeful activities, develop group consciousness or the coöperative spirit, provide many opportunities for creative self-expression, and educate parents in their responsibilities toward the child and his school.

Naturally the methods for attaining these and other associated objectives would differ from school to school, yet all the schools which were really attempting progressive changes have certain features in common. These have been summarized by Dewey as follows:

The query as to common elements in the various schools receives an easy answer up to a certain point. All of the schools, I take it for granted, exhibit as compared with traditional schools, a common emphasis upon respect for individuality and for increased freedom, a common disposition to build upon the nature and experience of the boys and girls that come to them, instead of imposing from without external subject-matter and standards. They all display a certain atmosphere of informality, because experience has proved that formalization is hostile to genuine mental activity and to sincere emotional expression and growth. Emphasis upon activity as distinct from passivity is one of the common factors. And again I assume that there is in all of these schools a common unusual attention to the human factors, to normal social relations, to communication and intercourse which is like in kind to that which is found in the great world beyond the school doors; that all alike believe that these normal human contacts of child with child and of child with teacher are of supreme educational importance, and that all alike disbelieve in

⁵⁴ R. S. Woodworth, "Historical Antecedents of the Present Child-Study Movement," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 3 (January-February-March, 1926), pp. 3-6.

those artificial personal relations which have been the chief factor in isolation of schools from life. So much at least of common spirit and purpose we may assume to exist. And in so far we already have the elements of a distinctive contribution to the body of educational theory: respect for individual capacities, interests and experience; enough external freedom and informality at least to enable teachers to become acquainted with children as they really are; respect for self-initiated and self-conducted learning; respect for activity as the stimulus and centre of learning; and perhaps above all belief in social contact, communication, and coöperation upon a normal human plane as all-enveloping medium.⁵⁵

Although relatively few schools have broken with tradition to the extent that their entire organization and teaching procedures may be said to be "child-centered," some of the progressive tendencies described in the above paragraph have found expression in many public schools, not only in the United States but also in foreign countries. Forty-two countries have already organized progressive education associations.⁵⁶ A danger which these schools will have to guard against is that they do not become crystallized in their own progressivism and turn into centers for the propagation of outgrown hobbies, thus ceasing to be truly progressive institutions.

ABILITY GROUPING

Ability grouping, or the practice of segregating children into groups according to ability, has been introduced so extensively that the term "homogeneous grouping" has become common parlance. In 1926 reports from forty cities with populations of 100,000 or more showed that in thirty-six of them the elementary-school pupils in some or all grades were classified into ability groups. Similar practices were reported for sixty-six of eighty-nine cities with populations of 30,000 to

⁵⁵ John Dewey, "Progressive Education and the Science of Education," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 5 (July-August-September, 1928), pp. 197-198.

⁵⁶ Laura Zirbes, "The Status of Progressive Schools," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 8 (May, 1931), pp. 359-366.

100,000, and for 145 of 163 cities with populations of 10,000 to 30,000.⁵⁷ Ability grouping is not a plan of organization. It is merely one aspect of the practices followed in the classification of children, a topic which is treated in a subsequent chapter. Attention is called to it here simply because it has usually been introduced as one means of making adjustments to individual differences of pupils. It is an administrative device which may become a feature of any one of a variety of plans of organization. Unfortunately, ability grouping has been used in some schools as a panacea for all the evils associated with a traditional and outgrown organization.

SPECIAL CLASSES

Like ability grouping, special classes do not constitute a plan of organization. Special classes are the modifications in organization which result from the application of the policies for the classification of children which are found in some school systems. If the classification policy calls for the segregation into special groups of certain atypical pupils, then the administration must provide for some means of handling these separated groups. Special classes and schools of various kinds have been the result. Needless to say, the establishment of special classes has been one way of providing more adequately for individual differences and for meeting better the increasing demands made upon the public schools. Administrative problems which are peculiar to this phase of organization are discussed in another chapter.

OTHER FORMS OF ORGANIZATION

The reader should not imply that the special types of organization for elementary schools discussed above are to be looked upon as the only plans through which the present purposes of elementary education can be attained. The plans given above have been described to illustrate the various ways

⁵⁷ *City School Leaflet No. 22, op. cit.*, p. 1.

or courses which have been followed in attempts to modify and to improve the traditional graded school. The sponsors of each of these plans have sought a means whereby certain current theories about education and the demands upon the public schools could be met more adequately. It is only natural that there should be some differences in the methods devised. Which of them will be rejected and which will be accepted will be determined by the extent to which each one is able to meet the challenge which it has accepted.

There are many school systems in which the organization for elementary education is of the rigid, formalized, typically traditional type. Modern educational theory labels these as archaic and inadequate to meet the present needs. The degree to which this criticism is valid has not been fully determined. In some cities the administrative programs have not undergone complete reorganization, but they have been modified to incorporate some of the features considered characteristic attributes of the special forms of organization described above. In fact, a cross-section of elementary-school organization to-day shows great diversity. There is no standard elementary school. Local conditions, no doubt, have been potent influences in shaping the programs in local communities. In view of such great diversity of practice and in the absence of more scientific knowledge regarding the relative merits of various devices it is difficult for any single administrator to know which practices to avoid and which to accept and to try to incorporate into his own school. Some authorities feel that only a basic and fundamental reorganization is acceptable. Whichever plan is pursued, it is perhaps essential that the administrator bear in mind the fact that the fundamental function of organization is to permit those in charge of the work to give expression to the educational philosophy which underlies the program and that no organization can be judged adequate which does not make it possible to provide for the differences among pupils. It is with these thoughts in mind that the subsequent chapters have been prepared.

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CHAPTER V

CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS

Much confusion exists regarding the meaning of the term "classification." Some authors imply that classification takes place when children are graded; that is, when they are placed in one of the grades for school work. Other writers imply that classification and ability grouping are somewhat synonymous terms and are used in describing the practice of dividing the pupils of any one grade into classes, or of grouping the pupils within a single class for teaching purposes.¹ ² Obviously the problem of segregating children into class groups of convenient size is closely related to and inextricably associated with the question of school progress. The intimate relationship of these two aspects of school administration has led some authors to treat them together.³

It seems, however, that there are some problems associated with the classification of pupils which are rather fundamental and merit careful examination. Hence, a separate treatment is provided. In the following discussion "classification" is defined as the "practice of organizing pupils into class groups for instructional purposes." It is assumed that this definition will be inclusive of all policies and procedures which are used in forming teaching groups at any point in the elementary-

¹ A. O. Heck, *The Administration of Pupil Personnel* (Ginn and Co., 1929), p. 434.

² E. W. Tiegs, *Tests and Measurements for Teachers* (Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1931), p. 149.

³ W. C. Reavis and others, *The Elementary School* (University of Chicago Press, 1931), Ch. vii.

school program.⁴ Those problems which deal with the progress of pupils through school are reserved for the succeeding chapter.

THE NEED FOR CLASSIFICATION

It may seem a platitude to suggest that the classification of pupils is basic to the effective execution of an educational program. The arranging or organizing of pupils into classes has become such a commonplace aspect of school administration that classification is likely to be taken for granted and not analyzed carefully to consider the ways in which sound classification procedures may aid in carrying out the aims and functions of elementary education. In 1928 there were slightly more than 21,000,000 children enrolled in the public elementary schools of the United States.⁵ The services of 600,000 teachers were engaged to instruct these children during a school term which averaged 172 days for the year. During the same year (1928) there were 90,822 elementary schools of more than one classroom. Of this number, 56,222 were located in consolidated districts, villages and towns, and the average enrollment in them ranged from fifty to five hundred pupils; 34,600 of the schools were located in cities with populations of 2,500 and over, with an average enrollment per school of approximately four hundred children.⁶ The very fact that within each of the 90,822 schools more than one teacher is employed implies the need for using some means for allocating the pupils to their respective teachers. By what criteria these pupils are to be selected is not always clear,

⁴ The use of such terms as "grades" or "levels" in the elementary school has been avoided deliberately. It was hoped that the question of classification of pupils might be approached without the restricting influence of the concept of school grades which has shackled educational thought to the point where it has become difficult to conceive of anything but a graded school.

⁵ Bess Goodykoontz and others, in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1928-1930*, Advance Pages, Vol. I, Ch. ii, p. 7.

⁶ W. C. Reavis and others, *op. cit.*, p. vi.

as the subsequent discussion will indicate. Even in one-teacher schools it has been common practice to divide pupils into classes and grades. The extensive use of procedures in classification is evident in all schools in which group instruction in any form is practiced. Even if individual instruction is the rule, it is necessary to assign pupils to specified classrooms. This implies classification, even though it be on the basis of chronological age or sex.

FUNCTIONS OF CLASSIFICATION

Perhaps the most obvious function of classification is the allocation of pupils in conveniently sized groups to rooms, classes, and teachers so the work of the school may proceed in an orderly and systematic fashion. A second function, not always so clearly recognized as the first, is to facilitate the execution of the educational policy. In some cities those in charge of the schools believe that one way of recognizing individual differences is to provide a differentiated curriculum for pupils of different levels of ability. Materials and methods of instruction are properly adjusted to the abilities of pupils in each of the differentiated groups. In order that such an educational policy may be carried out, it is necessary that the pupils who are to follow each course be selected. Perhaps the school district provides extensively for special classes of various kinds. Whether these classes be for the blind, the sub-normal, or the gifted, the candidates for them must be designated.⁷ Thus classification must precede and is basic to the execution of an educational program.

A third, and perhaps the most important, function of classification is to place each child in a school environment which will provide the best stimulation and opportunities for growth. This implies a thorough study of each child to ascertain his *total* educational needs and then to provide for him activities,

⁷ C. A. Smith and J. C. Moffitt, "The Provo Plan of School Adjustment," *Educational Method*, Vol. 11 (March, 1932), pp. 321-325.

experiences, and instruction according to the results of the diagnosis. Some writers have termed the latter process "grading," that is, placing the child in a "school grade" in which he is able to cope successfully with the scholastic tasks which have been prescribed for that grade. Such a concept of classification carries with it the impression that the child is to be fitted *to the school* rather than that the school organization is to be made flexible and fitted *to the child*. For nearly half a century progressive education has sought the recognition of the individual and has emphasized the fact that the *school is for the child* and not the *child for the school*. Yet the literature on school administration to this day is replete with the notion that the organization is standard, permanent, and sacred and that the principal should be ever on the look-out to make sure that each child is continuously well fitted into the organization.⁸ The present writer is fully aware of the difficulties encountered by those in the field in making an organization flexible so that it may be adjusted to the needs of pupils, but he also believes that little progress will be made in practice toward the recognition of individual differences until those responsible for the organization and administration of schools change their point of view with reference to the relations of the school to the child and look upon the organization as a flexible agency whose services should be marshalled in the interests of children.

Group instruction has been and still is the prevailing method of teaching in American schools. It was first used by the Brethren of the Christian Schools about 1684⁹ and was later developed by Andrew Bell in India and Joseph Lan-

⁸ For illustrations of this point of view, see:

W. C. Reavis and others, *op. cit.*, pp. 141-144.

A. O. Heck, *op. cit.*, p. 446.

P. R. Mort, *The Individual Pupil* (American Book Company, 1928), Ch. ii.

⁹ H. H. Ryan and Philipine Crecelius, *Ability Grouping in the Junior High School* (Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1927), p. 19

easter in England.¹⁰ The monitorial or Lancastrian plan for teaching was brought to this country by the Free School Society of New York in 1806¹¹ and served a useful purpose in this country for more than thirty years by providing a means whereby large groups of children could be handled. Although numerous devices for individualizing instruction have been developed recently, group instruction still predominates in American schools. No doubt it will continue to be an important feature of educational procedure because it is believed that certain values contributing toward the social objectives of education accrue from group activities. Even in schools in which the tool subjects have been individualized, group activities are considered an important aspect of the program. Consequently, procedures for the organization of class groups must be used.

Whenever children are taught in groups it is desirable to have the members of each group manifest similar interests, similar social and educational backgrounds, and similar capacities for learning so that all may profit from the activity. The problem of organizing classes in which such conditions prevail raises a number of significant issues pertaining to the educational growth of children and their progress in school. Under what kind of social environment will children grow the most? Will children develop more fully toward the attainment of the aims of elementary education if classified with children of their own chronological age, mental age, academic-achievement age, or on some other criterion? In

¹⁰ "In 1797, Dr. Andrew Bell published in England an account of an experiment in education by means of monitors, which he had made some years earlier in an orphan asylum in Madras, India. About the same time . . . Joseph Lancaster (an English schoolmaster) was led independently to a similar discovery. . . ." E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919), p. 90. Quoted by permission of the publishers.

¹¹ J. F. Reigart, *The Lancastrian System of Instruction in the Schools of New York City*, Contributions to Education, No. 81 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1916), Ch. iv.

the past nearly all efforts at classification have centered upon the pupils' abilities and capacities in academic subjects. School administrators have been concerned chiefly with assembling children into class groups on the basis of their competence in tool subjects. The patterns of thought set by the graded school have centered around only one of the purposes of elementary education, namely, to gain command of the common integrating knowledges and skills.¹² If instruction is to give proper emphasis to each of the aims of the elementary school, it may be desirable to take into consideration numerous factors, in addition to academic achievement, in classifying pupils. Just how this is to be accomplished and what size of class group will result in most efficient pupil progress has not been fully ascertained.

In deciding upon a plan whereby children are to be classified in a particular school, a number of factors have to be taken into consideration in order to arrive at a plan which is sound in theory and practicable in the local situation. The number and size of available classrooms and the number of teachers assigned to a particular building are frequently controlling influences which must be given first consideration. Sometimes the size of classes has to be determined by administrative expediency. Whenever some latitude of choice is possible, the administrator will desire to know the status of scientific evidence regarding the optimum size of classes for elementary-school work before he decides upon a classification plan to be followed in his school. He may also desire to familiarize himself with the effectiveness of various plans tried in other school systems and with the bases used in classifying children. Some of these factors which seem to have pertinent bearing upon the development of a classification plan for local schools are discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

¹² Alice V. Keliher, *A Critical Study of Homogeneous Grouping*, Contributions to Education, No. 452 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931), Ch. i.

THE SIZE OF CLASSES

Although much has been written¹³ and some research¹⁴ has been conducted in an effort to discover the most desirable number of pupils to be assigned to one teacher or to one class, the question of class size in the elementary school is still a moot issue. Current practice reveals much diversity. In 1929, data from 386 cities with populations of 2,500 to 25,000 showed the average size of elementary-school classes (Table XIX) to vary from less than twenty-five to more than forty.

TABLE XIX

THE AVERAGE SIZE OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL CLASSES IN 1929 IN 386 CITIES RANGING IN POPULATION FROM 2,500 TO 25,000 *

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT	AVERAGE NUMBER OF PUPILS PER CLASS										TOTAL	
	25 or Less		26-30		31-35		36-40		41 or More			
	N †	P ‡	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P
500 or less.....	15	21	22	31	18	25	13	18	4	5	72	100
501-1,000.....	5	4	38	26	56	39	32	23	11	8	142	100
1,001-1,500.....	2	3	11	14	39	50	26	33	78	100
1,501-2,000.....	6	14	18	43	16	38	2	5	42	100
2,001-3,000.....	3	11	12	41	12	41	2	7	29	100
3,001-4,000.....	1	6	1	6	6	33	10	55	18	100
4,001 and over.....	3	60	2	40	5	100
Total.....	23	6	81	21	152	39	111	29	19	5	386	100

* From H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series No. 5 (Evanston, Illinois, Northwestern University, 1932), p. 29.

† N—Number of districts

‡ P—Per cent based on the number of districts within each enrollment group.

¹³ E. E. Keener, "What Size Class?" *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 32 (October, 1931), pp. 144-146, and Vol. 32 (March, 1932), pp. 492-494.

L. J. Hauser, "More Concerning What Size Class?" *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 32 (December, 1931), pp. 255-256.

¹⁴ All experimental studies on class size in the elementary school are summarized in Earl Hudelson, *Class Size at the College Level* (University of Minnesota Press, 1928), Ch. ii.

In 68 per cent of the cities the average class ranged in size from thirty to forty pupils. It was perhaps to be expected that classes would tend to be bigger in the larger cities. The extreme differences in the average number of pupils assigned to classes is worthy of note. It is frequently very difficult for

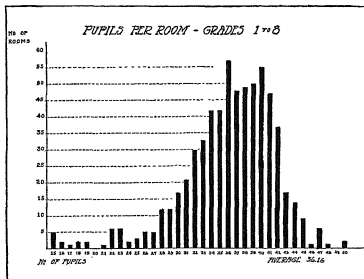


FIG. 8. PUPILS PER ROOM, GRADES 1-8. ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA, MARCH, 1932.

From *School Bulletin*, Department of Education, City of St. Paul, Minnesota, Vol. 14 (March, 1932), p. 4.

a school system to have each class consist of the same number of pupils. Consequently, if the average size of class varies as it does, there must be marked differences between the size of classes within a given district (Fig. 8) and between the smallest classes in certain districts and the largest classes in other districts. Perhaps no one would desire to speculate on all the factors which might be responsible for the variations in the sizes of classes which the data reveal, yet one can readily see

how the classification of children in a particular school might be affected by the number of pupils of a given age or grade who are enrolled in the school. Unfortunately there is available very little scientific information to guide the practical administrator in determining his educational policy with reference to class size. Hudelson has summarized the research in this field as follows:

Apparently the nearest one can come to the truth in a single statement is that as a result of such researches as have been conducted, the size of the class has little, if anything, to do with educational efficiency measured in terms of pupil achievement. If there is any difference it is in favor of the small or medium-sized class, and this advantage is slightly more beneficial to dull pupils.

The seeming inconsequence of these conclusions may, however, mask their real significance. If students achieve nearly as well in large classes as in small ones, can the continued maintenance of small classes be justified? Is the slight advantage worth the difference in cost? Are there other important outcomes accruing, or at least accruable, only from small classes that will warrant their inevitably heavier expense? If so, can means be perfected for attaining these outcomes in large-class units and can an adequate number of teachers be trained to employ these means? In brief, if the advantages of small classes are so slight under present methods of instruction and classroom management, can classroom techniques be evolved which will reduce educational costs by producing results favorable to larger classes? ¹⁵

In many cities recent reductions in school budgets have made it necessary to assign a larger number of pupils to each teacher. It is likely that classes larger than the size formerly considered optimum are here to stay. This situation must be faced in spite of the fact that the case for larger classes has not been proved adequately. If it is agreed that the kind of knowledge now measured by objective tests constitutes all there is to education, large classes could be accepted without much argument. There are those, however, who feel that there are many concomitant learnings not measured at present by objective tests, and that the proportion of these intangible

¹⁵ *Ibid*, p. 36.

outcomes is likely to be in inverse ratio to the size of the class. The teacher's opportunity for knowing the whole child in order better to guide his character development, emotional control, habits of study, and the development of attitudes, ideals, and appreciations is diminished decidedly when large classes prevail. If, in spite of all these considerations, large classes must be handled, every effort should be made to provide as many conditions as possible which will compensate for oversized class sections. Congdon has prepared a check list of factors compensating for oversized class sections which includes twenty-two items classed as "instructional factors."¹⁶ Administrators who are confronted with acute problems of class size may desire to obtain a copy of Congdon's check list for such suggestions and aid as it may give.

No doubt the problem of "What Size Class?" will assume new characteristics and new proportions as progress is made in the development of materials and methods for individualizing instruction. Many teachers find it desirable now to subdivide each of their classes into from three to five or six smaller groups. Self-directed instructional materials are facilitating greatly the management of classes in this fashion. As further progress is made in this field, many of the local conditions and factors which are now handicaps in carrying out a desirable classification procedure will have been eliminated.

CURRENT CLASSIFICATION PROCEDURES

Before entering upon a critical review of various other phases of the question of classifying children for instructional purposes, it may be of interest to examine the ways in which school systems are now classifying their children. A survey, made in 1929, of the procedures of organizing pupils into class groups for instructional purposes followed in cities with popu-

¹⁶ W. H. Congdon, "The Problem of Oversized Class Sections," *The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, Vol. 4 (February, 1933), pp. 68-70.

lations of 2,500 to 25,000,¹⁷ suggested four general categories into which prevailing practices fall. These were designated as "policies" and were defined as follows:

Policy 1.—The pupils of any one grade of the elementary schools of a system are not divided on the basis of intelligence or other measures into groups or sections for instructional purposes. The pupils are arbitrarily assigned to one or more rooms to obtain classes of convenient size.

Policy 2.—The pupils of any one grade of the elementary schools of a system are divided on the basis of intelligence or other measures into two distinct sections. The pupils in each of the two groups are organized into classes for instructional purposes.

Policy 3.—The pupils of any one grade of the elementary schools of a system are divided on the basis of intelligence or other measures into three distinct sections. The pupils in each of the three groups are organized into classes for instructional purposes.

Policy 4.—Miscellaneous practices which could not be classified among policies 1, 2, or 3. Usually this practice refers to the division of the pupils of a grade into four or five, or a variable number of groups.

When the prevailing policies with reference to pupil classification were tabulated for the districts studied, the totals revealed that *Policy 2* (Table XX) was most commonly used while *Policy 4* had but few adherents. Subsequent analyses of the classification practices showed that approximately 74 per cent of the systems operating eight-year elementary schools and 93 per cent of those maintaining six-year elementary schools applied in all grades whatever policy had been adopted. Instruments for the objective measurement of pupil traits and abilities were used in sectioning pupils in approximately two-thirds of the schools. Very few districts, however, formulated class groups solely on the basis of standardized mental and achievement tests. Schools which indicated the use of the objective tests utilized the results of these tests,

¹⁷ H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, Ch. iii.

TABLE XX

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF 380 CITIES RANGING IN POPULATION FROM 2,500 TO 25,000 ACCORDING TO THE GENERAL POLICIES FOLLOWED IN THE CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS, 1929 *

PRACTICES IN THE CLASSIFI- CATION OF CHILDREN	GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISION								TOTAL CITIES	
	Eastern		Great Lakes		Great Plains		Western			
	N†	P‡	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P
1.....	40	27	30	27	15	21	13	25	98	26
2.....	54	36	54	50	38	53	19	37	165	44
3.....	41	27	20	18	14	20	13	25	88	23
4.....	13	10	5	5	4	6	7	13	29	7
Total..	148	100	109	100	71	100	52	100	380	100

* From H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, p. 34.

† N—Number of cities.

‡ P—Per cent of cities.

together with teachers' marks and teachers' estimates of pupil intelligence, as bases for sectioning pupils. The one measure which was mentioned most frequently, regardless of the policy used, is the teacher's estimate of pupil intelligence.

The data which have just been reviewed show that a large number of plans are being used in classifying pupils for instructional purposes—the various measures that were reported are applied in more than ninety different combinations. Consequently the plan actually used in classifying pupils may differ markedly, even in two districts which follow the same general policy. The reasons for the lack of agreement among school systems as to the measures to be used in organizing classes are not known. It is likely that differences in the philosophy underlying the classification policy and the comparatively small amount of scientific information at hand as to how pupils *should* be classified are reflected in the data. No doubt school systems are classifying pupils according to

plans best suited to local conditions rather than according to plans found most efficacious through research. One of the factors which is likely to have important bearings upon classification practices in a particular city is the school system's plant facilities, that is, the number, size, and internal arrangement of elementary-school buildings, their location with reference to the school population to be served, and with reference to one another.

Among current classification procedures should perhaps be mentioned some plans which are now or have recently been in operation in one or more school systems. In the Winnetka schools children are assigned to classrooms on the basis of social maturity, a measure in which chronological age plays a predominant part. Collings, in a rural school, carried on an experiment in which he attempted to classify children into three groups on a natural basis. Mental, social, and interest factors were the fundamental considerations in grouping. Group one contained children six, seven, and eight years old; group two contained children of nine, ten, and eleven years; and group three included twelve-, thirteen-, and in some instances fourteen-year-old children.¹⁸ In Detroit, to achieve more perfect segregation of pupils into homogeneous groups, an administrative device called "vertical grouping" is employed.

Under this plan grades are combined into ability groups, rather than ability groups into grades. That is, instead of having groups of identical grade-classification but of differing intelligence-classification housed in the same classroom under a particular teacher, groups from contiguous grades but of the same intelligence-classification are housed together under one teacher.¹⁹

Many cities have found it desirable to extend their classification policy so that atypical children might be handled

¹⁸ E. Collings, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum* (The Macmillan Co., 1923), p. 49.

¹⁹ W. Vreeland, "Detroit's Experiment on Individualization," *School and Society*, Vol. 32 (September 20, 1930), pp. 398-402.

in special classes or schools. This special aspect of the classification of pupils has developed so rapidly during the present century that a separate chapter will be devoted to it. Homogeneous grouping, which perhaps corresponds somewhat to *Policies 2 and 3*, discussed above, has been received favorably in many school systems. A separate discussion of this topic is provided at this point.

HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING

Homogeneous grouping may well be included among current methods for classifying children. In 1926, 235 out of 292 cities having populations of 10,000 and more reported the use of homogeneous or ability grouping in the elementary grades. So extensive has ability grouping become that in the minds of many public-school workers and writers ability grouping and classification are thought of as synonymous terms. Obviously these two terms are not identical unless one assumes that ability grouping is a generic term which includes all methods for classifying children, whether by chronological age, sex, mental ability, or other criteria.

A comprehensive consideration of all the problems pertaining to the question of ability grouping is beyond the scope of this chapter. For the history of ability grouping and for the arguments in favor of and against homogeneous grouping, the interested reader is referred to other sources.²⁰ Attention will be given here only to what appear to be crucial problems in its application. To clarify thinking regarding the meaning of ability grouping and some of its significant implications, the following statement by Turney is quoted:

An understanding of the problem of ability grouping necessitates recognition of two extreme situations: complete heterogeneity on the

²⁰ H. H. Ryan and Philipine Orecelius, *Ability Grouping in the Junior High School* (Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1927), Ch. iii.

Ninth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (1931), pp. 122-126.

J. R. McGaughy, "Homogeneous Grouping of Pupils," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 6 (March, 1930), pp. 291-296.

one hand and complete homogeneity on the other. Theoretically, complete heterogeneity would mean the inclusion of children, regardless of age and regardless of previous education, in one group under a type of instruction which would give no individual attention whatever. One might think of children from each of the elementary grades placed in one large room and taught by the lecture method as an illustration of this condition. A more extreme case could of course be supposed. It requires the presentation of no experimental evidence to convince most people that extreme heterogeneity would not be a desirable situation for the learning of school subjects.

Complete homogeneity would be secured only when every pupil in the group is equal to every other pupil in ability, age, industry, previous experience, and in *all other factors* which in any way affect learning. Even with all factors equal, the progress of the individuals in the group would be equal only if each of them received identically the same motivation under identical circumstances and if each were presented with the same materials in equal quantity. Such a condition is unattainable in practice. As the criteria for classification are multiplied the size of groups within any initial population decreases until we approach or reach single individuals. We may think then of individual instruction as theoretically the ideal of homogeneous grouping if the anomaly of "groups" of one be permitted.

Between these two extremes lie many degrees of "homogeneity" of grouping. The eight grades of the elementary school, and the four grades of the high school, represent attempts at placing together pupils who presumably are able to work and to progress in conjunction. In recent years the differentiation between 1A, and 1B, 2A, and 2B, and so on, is additional evidence of a well established custom of grouping together pupils presumably somewhat alike in ability and attainment. *Curiously enough many of the discussions regarding the advantages and disadvantages of ability grouping appear to disregard the extent to which ability grouping exists in practice.*

For the purpose of this paper we are concerned more especially with attempts to refine the classification already existing, by the use of various measures of "ability." The aim of ability grouping thus considered has sometimes been stated in words very similar to those of Symonds as that of bringing together "pupils who will be alike in achievement at the end of the period of learning."

Such a definition seems to be inadequate if unqualified. It does not focus attention upon the extent to which a pupil uses his ability during the learning process. Hence we could place in the same group a bright but lazy pupil and a dull but industrious one, since they might be together in achievement at the end of a period of learning.

The question of what ability grouping is for, cannot be so simply answered. If one regards education as being concerned with the fullest development of the individual, then ability grouping will have to be made upon such bases as permit throwing into relief the ability of the pupil in comparison with his achievement, in the hope that, through modification of teaching technique and content the individual will be given full opportunity to utilize his ability; and that, further, a failure on the part of the pupil to utilize ability will become the concern of the teacher. Few of those attacking the problem of ability grouping experimentally have given any concern to this aspect of it.

We may redefine ability grouping in these terms: *The aim of ability grouping is to bring together pupils who will be able to work together and to progress together under conditions permitting the fullest possible development of the individuals involved.*

This definition may perhaps look toward individual instruction. It is well to note that whether we have individual instruction or group instruction will depend upon the ability of the school system to support individual instruction, and upon the results of research seeking to establish whether or not individual instruction is the best way in which to attain the fullest development of the individual. Ability grouping is not necessarily opposed to individual instruction, because in some instances individual instruction may be the chief method employed in the teaching of segregated groups. In general, however, homogeneous grouping seems to imply group instruction. It would appear therefore to represent a compromise between instruction given to heterogeneous groups and individual instruction.

Ability grouping is not necessarily the same as classification, but it follows from the foregoing discussion that they are not entirely distinct. Classification in the usual sense represents a grouping based upon attainment realized. Ability grouping, theoretically at least, presumes grouping in relation to *ability to attain*. The two are not necessarily identical. Presumably they would be if our educational machinery were as successful as we should like to have it.

To the extent that either mental age or IQ or both are used in classification it becomes ability grouping. When chronological age determines the classification it is ability grouping only so far as chronological age is related to ability to succeed in school work. Within narrow ranges this relationship may be small or negative.²¹

It appears that there are two main problems involved in carrying out an effective program of homogeneous grouping.

²¹ A. H. Turney, "The Status of Ability Grouping," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol 17 (January, 1931), pp. 21-23.

One is to secure proper adaptation of methods and materials for each of the segregated groups. This is primarily a problem of teaching and supervision and not one of classification. The other problem pertains to the procedures which shall be used in selecting groups of pupils who will be homogeneous from the viewpoint of teaching and learning. It involves the selection of criteria on the basis of which one can predict the subsequent achievement of pupils because the very fact that a pupil is assigned to one group rather than another implies that his progress and ability are estimated to be of a certain character. This point is apparent if a differentiated curriculum is to be applied to the various groups. On the question of predicting achievement, Ross and Hooks have the following to say:

Adequate guidance, both educational and vocational, is the most acute problem of the modern high school. The vastly increased enrollments and the enormously expanded curricula within the high school, together with the constant multiplication and diversification of the activities of life outside, have conspired to bring this about. Upon this point all authorities are agreed.

There is also general agreement upon a second point, namely, that intelligent guidance depends upon the ability to discover the relationship between the future and the present, and to predict the one in terms of the other. For example, a recent book on adolescent psychology makes this statement: "The prediction and control of adolescent behavior are the two most important problems upon which the psychology of adolescence should give information."* Upon the same point a leading book in measurement says: "Science holds prediction as its most important aim, and prognosis is the ultimate aim of endeavor in the scientific study of education."†

How, then, shall we predict high school achievement? What are the factors in the present that give the clue to the future? Three different bases of prediction have been suggested:

1. Character of personality ratings. As a rule these take the form of teachers' estimates of industry, attitude, interest and the like.

* F. D. Brooks, *The Psychology of Adolescence* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929), p. 544.

† P. M. Symonds, *Measurement in Secondary Education* (The Macmillan Co., 1927), p. 363.

2. Intelligence test scores. These may be either scores on "general" intelligence tests that yield the mental age and IQ, or "special" intelligence tests that aim to measure aptitude along some particular line.

3. Previous academic record. This may be afforded by standardized tests in various school subjects, by the teacher's marks in the grade school, or by a combination of various factors from the grade school record, including such items as age at finishing the elementary school, time required to do so, and attendance record from year to year, as well as teachers' marks.

Which basis is best? That is the big question. Unfortunately there is no general agreement as to the answer. For example, Ruch and Stoddard ‡ summarize the situation as follows:

1. Teachers' marks are the least promising . . .

2. In theory, at least, prognosis and aptitude tests are the best . . . (but) since so few good tests of this type are available at present, prognosis tests will seldom be the choice of the high-school administrator.

3. In the absence of available experimental evidence, then, the safest general practice in school classification is probably the general intelligence test, at least for the more highly verbal or linguistic school subjects.

On the other hand, such excellent authorities as Symonds, Brooks, and Kefauver, disagree. Symonds,§ for example, summarizes his conclusion as follows:

1. Intelligence tests are better than separate tests of elementary school subjects as predictors of high school success, but are not so good as elementary school marks.

2. Ratings of character and ability qualities have been found to give high correlations by Kelby and Flemming . . . (but) the unreliability of ratings in general leads one on general principles to discredit the predictive value of teacher's ratings.

3. Not much better results may be expected from a specially designed prognosis test for predicting average school success over a general intelligence test, but a specially designed prognosis test is slightly superior to a general intelligence test for predicting success in any one subject. . . . Taking the normal situation, school marks are preferable to tests for prediction of success in high school.

Brooks' || position is summarized as follows:

The best single basis for predicting scholarship (i.e., school marks or other measures of scholastic attainment) in high school is the average

‡ G. M. Ruch and G. D. Stoddard, *Tests and Measurement in High School Instruction* (World Book Co., 1927), p. 40.

§ Symonds, *op. cit.*, pp. 398-407.

|| Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 558.

mark received in the grades immediately preceding the high school. Next in order of predictive value are teachers' estimates (of industry, school attainment, intelligence, persistence, conscientiousness, etc.), intelligence and achievement tests, and chronological age.

The following quotation from Kefauver[†] indicates that his position is very similar to that of Brooks:

The most significant single source of information for predicting success in the first year of the junior or four-year high school is the judgment of the teachers in the elementary school. . . . Whatever the combination of factors used for distributing pupils to ability groups it should contain either a composite of the marks in the elementary school or a rating of capacity by the teacher.

It will be noted that the first of these authorities places teachers' marks at the bottom of the list, while the others place them at the top. When such serious disagreement as this occurs, a careful examination of what constitutes a satisfactory basis of prediction is in order. Briefly stated, a satisfactory prediction meets three conditions, namely, validity, reliability, and usability. The most important of these is validity, for by validity is meant truthfulness. To what extent do the predictions actually come true? For example, if the prediction is made that John will do well in high school, that Mary will make an average record, while Tom will make a complete failure, to what extent do they actually turn out that way? Insofar as the prediction is realized, it is considered valid.

By reliability is meant consistency of prediction. To what extent do the predictions agree with themselves? For example, do they tell the truth all of the time, none of the time, or just some of the time? Or, may we expect to get the same answer regardless of its truthfulness, whenever and wherever we ask for it? Insofar as the predictions are stable and constituent they are said to possess reliability. The validity of a prediction is limited by reliability, although high reliability in itself does not guarantee high validity.

By usability is meant practicality. Are the predictions capable of being arrived at and used with sufficient ease to make them practical, or do they call for too great an expenditure of time and energy for the returns they yield? The extent to which they meet this test determines their usability.²²

[†] G. N. Kefauver, "The Validity of Bases for Forming Ability Groups," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 31 (November, 1929), pp. 111-113.

²² C. C. Ross and N. T. Hooks, "How Shall We Predict High-School Achievement?" *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 22 (October, 1930), pp. 184-187.

After analyzing carefully each of the three different bases for prediction named by them in terms of reliability, validity, and usability, these authors supplied extensive data on the predictive value of grade-school records. In addition to the customary teachers' marks, such items as age at end of Grade 8, grade progress, days present in Grades 2 and 3, days present in Grades 4 through 6, and effort were taken from the school records, properly weighted, and used in ascertaining correlations with success. After discarding for various reasons personality ratings and special aptitude tests as bases for grouping, they raise the following question regarding the use of the general intelligence test and the grade-school record.

How, then, do these compare with similar results obtained by the use of general intelligence tests? It will be recalled that there are three qualities of a satisfactory prediction, namely, validity, reliability, and usability. The results presented here indicate the superiority of previous academic record on all these points. Under most favorable conditions the validity of intelligence tests seems about equal to that of previous school record, but under typical conditions it falls below. It is, however, on the factor of consistency, or stability, that intelligence tests make the poorest showing. Where correlations vary from .12 to .69, as has been the case in the studies reported for intelligence tests, what assurance has one that the results on this particular situation may not be at the low end of the scale rather than at the upper? Of course there can be no such assurance. The condition is not unlike that where one is asked to believe the statement of a person who is known to tell the truth *some* of the time. The trouble with this is that no one can tell when he may be lying. As to usability, the previous school record is, or at any rate ought to be, available for use in prediction with no cost in money and with little expenditure in time and effort. In view of these considerations, then, it would seem to be the part of wisdom to utilize the previous record of the pupil as the best basis for predicting his future record. Indeed, it should not be surprising to discover that in the history of the individual, as in the history of the race, the best way to judge the future is by the past.²³

With reference to the use of indices of past achievement

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 194-195.

as criteria for ability grouping, Turney raises the following significant issue:

On this connection it seems advisable to raise the question of the bases of ability grouping. Some writers would use measures of mental ability alone; some advocate the use of a measure of past achievement. A recent study by Kefauver* advocates the inclusion of a measure of past achievement. "Whatever the combination of factors used for distributing pupils to ability groups it should contain either a composite of the marks in the elementary school or a rating of capacity by the teacher." We beg to question this conclusion. Any measure of past achievement is sure to be, and any teacher's judgment of capacity is likely to be, partly a measure of the industry, perseverance, and ambition of the pupil. Unless this past achievement has occurred under properly motivated conditions the result may be far from what it ought to be.

We grant that a combination of measures of mental ability plus measures of achievement will predict subsequent achievement better *under the same conditions of motivation*. In fact, Brooks† found that sixth grade marks are as good or better an index of seventh grade accomplishment than any one of seven mental tests he used excepting only the Stanford Binet. This is not surprising since teachers' marks if objectively made will measure the results of the application to school work of both mental ability and traits of character as we have elsewhere pointed out.‡ But when past achievement is utilized as a basis for classification, either alone or in connection with mental ability, the relative importance of ability and of other factors is obscured.

Past achievement alone is a suitable criterion of later achievement only when each pupil's motivation is maximal or constant. In the ordinary school-room situation optimum motivation is seldom the case. Therefore, while measures of past achievement may predict subsequent achievement more closely than will a measure of ability, they may do so only because certain factors such as industry, which may be changeable, and frequently should be changed, are ignored in the attempt to educate the pupils. If, following grouping upon the basis of past achievement, the motivation of pupils became maximal

* G. N. Kefauver, "The Validity of Bases for Forming Ability Groups," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 31 (November, 1929), pp. 99-115.

† F. D. Brooks, "Sectioning Junior High School Pupils by Tests and School Marks," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 12 (December, 1925), pp. 359-369.

‡ A. H. Turney, *Factors Other Than Intelligence that Affect Success in High School as Indicated by Teachers' Marks* (University of Minnesota Press, 1930).

it is doubtful whether or not measures of past achievement would have as great a value for prediction as measures of mental ability.²⁴

With such disagreements by authorities regarding the most desirable bases to be used in forming ability groups the practical administrator is left without a concrete proposal which can be applied in his school. It is the opinion of the writer that the point of view expressed by Turney in the last quoted paragraph should be taken seriously. It is the aim of the school to give each child the maximum education which he is capable of taking. This implies that the school should seek to have each child achieve according to his ability, rather than according to past achievement which may have resulted from inadequate motivation and inadequate knowledge of the whole child. It would seem that achievement which is below that of which the child is capable of doing should become the concern of the teacher and that she should make every effort to discover and to correct whatever maladjustments may exist so that the child will achieve according to his ability. If this point of view is accepted, ability grouping should be made on the basis of mental ability and every effort should be made to have each child achieve according to his ability.

A second problem, closely allied with the selection of bases for classification, is that of securing class groups which are really homogeneous from the standpoint of teaching and learning. If satisfactory criteria for grouping could be found and if school enrollments were large enough, one might be able to find within each elementary school or within each city enough children homogeneous in regard to all factors which are important for educational development so that classes of requisite size could be organized. Neither of the above conditions prevails to-day. Also, the use of the entire city as the unit for selection entails obvious difficulties. Hence it is not surprising to find that all past attempts to secure homogeneous groups have not resulted in the formation of

²⁴ A. H. Turney, "The Status of Ability Grouping," *op. cit.*, pp. 24-25.

homogenous groups. The best that has been accomplished is to reduce somewhat the range of abilities within each of the classes. Perhaps this is worth doing, but one must not overlook the fact that within each ability group there remain wide variations in individual abilities and the need for recognizing these differences and providing for them is not removed from the teacher's task through homogeneous grouping.

Burr has made what is perhaps the most critical analysis of the homogeneity of ability groups.²⁵ His chief interest was to study the overlapping of achievement of homogeneous groups. He recognized fully the fact that two groups might have the same mean achievement but represent two very different teaching situations, for one group might have little variation from the mean, while the other group might represent a very wide range of achievement. He also recognized some of the dangers involved in making comparisons on the basis of ranges. He took as the basis for his analysis, data from homogenous groups as actually taught in several field situations. Burr says:

[Table XXI] shows the per cent of the total range in reading and arithmetic found in the various sections of 4B grades in eleven schools in City C. The bases for grouping here were intelligence, achievement, and teachers' judgment. The ranges of the high sections vary from 56 to 100 per cent of the total range of reading scores in the particular grades of which the groups are a part. In arithmetic the ranges of these high sections were from 61 per cent to 100 per cent of the various total ranges. In reading, the low groups represented from 67 per cent to 96 per cent of the total range, which means that in the low group representing the smallest part of the whole grade range, 67 per cent of the total range of achievement in the grade was achieved by the slow pupils while one low group had 96 per cent of the whole grade range in the achievement of its pupils. In arithmetic the low groups had from 55 to 100 per cent of the total range of achievement. . . .

A rough interpretation of the above facts is that the teachers in these fourth grade sections are faced with a range of over three-

²⁵ M. Y. Burr, *A Study of Homogeneous Grouping*, Contributions to Education, No. 457 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

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1. When pupils are hypothetically divided into groups on the basis of scores in one subject, such as reading, so that the groups are non-overlapping with respect to ability in that subject, as measured by tests, much overlapping is found with respect to scores in other subjects. Exceptions were found in two instances where the overlapping of homogeneous reading groups was not so great as was usual. Other groups homogeneous in reading overlapped to a great degree in arithmetic.

2. When pupils are divided into non-overlapping groups with respect to scores on some phase of one subject they do overlap on other phases of the same subject. The overlapping was quite marked in the case of arithmetic reasoning and arithmetic computation, and less marked in paragraph reading and word meaning.

3. The presence of variation in achievement even within a subject such as reading and arithmetic indicates that there is no way of forming truly homogeneous groups.

4. The nearest approximation that can be made to homogeneous grouping for practical purposes is to divide pupils on the basis of achievement in one subject, such as reading, for instruction in reading; but this grouping will have little significance for instruction in any other subject, nor will the groups be homogeneous in all phases of reading.²⁸

With reference to the variations in achievements of individual pupils, Burr made the following statement:

Since individual pupils are such complexes of more or less independent elements, there can be no basis for classification that will yield anything approaching homogeneity in more than one rather specific trait, even within such categories as physical status, mental ability, or as was indicated in the previous chapter, educational achievements. Grouping based on composites of many characteristics cannot but result in heterogeneity. In the light of individual variations, a plan for homogeneous grouping that includes measures of intelligence, of achievement, of physical status, of social maturity, and chronological age, such as the writer heard advocated at one of the meetings of the Department of Superintendence in February, 1930, will yield groups that are practically heterogeneous.²⁹

A fourth phase of Burr's study dealt with the value of homogeneous grouping in eliminating the need for individual

²⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 41-42.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 49.

adjustments. One of the arguments for ability grouping has been that it reduces the range of abilities within each of the groups formed and thus makes teaching easier and makes it easier for the teacher to adjust to the variations which do exist within any one group. To obtain some index of the need for individual adjustments Burr computed the mean achievement in a subject of each homogeneous group in one grade. Then a hypothetical teachable range was determined and the number of pupils whose achievement fell above or below this range was counted. All the scores were then thrown into one large group, the mean of all the scores in one grade was computed, the range was adjusted to this mean, and the number of pupils falling above or below this range was counted. This method provided a basis on which it was possible to make a comparison between the total number of pupils who need individual attention when they are grouped homogeneously and the number who would need attention if they were grouped at random.³⁰ Table XXII presents a summary of this phase of his investigation.

Without going into detail regarding the assumptions and limitations which Burr points out are involved in the use of this technique, the following statement from Burr's monograph is presented:

We are in a position, then, to draw a tentative conclusion concerning the value of homogeneous grouping in eliminating need for individual adjustment. This conclusion depends upon the hypothesis concerning a group that can be taught without necessity for making individual adjustments and the range of achievements of such a group. It is concluded that on the average the pupils in "homogeneous" groups of about thirty-one, similar to the groups in this study, who need individual adjustment number three fewer than if they were grouped heterogeneously. Even if this be considered enough of a difference to justify homogeneous grouping, it should be realized that a very great problem of individual adjustment still remains, that on the average ten or eleven of the pupils in the "homogeneous" groups would still be individual problems.³¹

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 51.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 55.

TABLE XXII

SUMMARY OF NUMBER OF PUPILS NEEDING INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTMENT AND DIFFICULTY OF MAKING THE ADJUSTMENT.*

CITY	NUMBER OF PUPILS	NUMBER OF GROUPS	NUMBER OF DIFFERENT SUBJECTS	GROUPS TIMES SUBJECTS	NUMBER OF PUPILS TO BE ADJUSTED		DIFFICULTY OF ADJUSTMENT	
					Homogeneous Groups	Heterogeneous Groups	Homogeneous Groups	Heterogeneous Groups
City A.	309	9	3	27	233	349	260	415
City D.	208	6	2	12	147	156	183	193
City F.	200	8	4	32	355	450	514	725
Total.	717	23	71	735	955	906	1,333
Mean per group per subject.	31.2	10.4	13.5	13.6	18.6

* From M. Y. Burr, *A Study of Homogeneous Grouping*, p. 54

After the foregoing sketchy review of some of the difficulties confronting any one who wishes to effect homogeneous grouping, the reader may wonder what values actually accrue from ability grouping. Among the relatively unproved claims are reduction of failures and elimination, promotion of greater interest and incentive on the part of pupils, greater participation on the part of slower pupils because they are not continuously eclipsed by the brighter students, and teaching is made easier. Perhaps the greatest advantages it was hoped would result are pupil progress commensurate with their abilities and better adaptation of materials and methods of instruction to the needs of the group. Unfortunately most of the studies in ability grouping have failed to take advantage of the opportunities afforded by this administrative device. The chief purpose for instituting ability grouping is to facilitate the recognition of individual differences. When this is not done and when all sections, regardless of the level of ability, are taught in the same manner, one can see little excuse for having homogeneous grouping. Turney very aptly calls atten-

tion to this point in the conclusions which he drew after reviewing sixty-six experimental studies on ability grouping. His conclusions are as follows:

The citations reviewed are not exhaustive but we believe they are representative. Any conclusions drawn should be recognized as purely tentative.

1. Most of the studies purporting to evaluate ability grouping have proved nothing regarding ability grouping but have only added evidence bearing upon the nature and extent of individual differences.

2. Most of the experimental attacks upon the value of ability grouping have failed to evaluate the chief claim for it, *i.e.*, the possibility of adapting content, method, or time.

3. There is some reason to believe that ability grouping can best be exploited by using measures of mental ability as the major bases for sectioning.

4. The experimental literature indicates that more often than not pupils do better in homogeneous groups than in heterogeneous groups.

5. There is fairly strong indication that when efforts are made to adapt the means and materials of instruction to the needs of different levels of ability, better achievement occurs in homogeneous than in heterogeneous groups.

6. In the experimental situation where there is no special effort made to adapt content or method, the average and lower groups appeared to benefit more often than the higher groups.

7. There is some evidence, not conclusive, that ability grouping promotes motivation of the pupils to increased effort.

8. There is no adequate information as to whether the majority of teachers really find it easier to teach homogeneous groups.

9. There is no acceptable evidence as to the effect upon the mental hygiene of the child.

10. There is some evidence that homogeneous grouping reduces failure but it is not conclusive.

11. There is no direct evidence that elimination is reduced as a result of homogeneous grouping *per se*.

12. The true evaluation of ability grouping must be deferred until adequate experimental attacks have succeeded in measuring its alleged advantages.³²

The experimental studies on ability grouping represent a capital illustration of how organization and administrative

³² A. H. Turney, "The Status of Ability Grouping," *op. cit.*, pp. 122-123.

devices may facilitate the execution of an educational policy and also how failure to exploit and utilize the opportunities afforded by administrative procedures may defeat the very purpose for which the latter were instituted. As pointed out above, the very purpose for introducing homogeneous grouping is to facilitate adaptation of instruction to individual differences, and it is difficult to justify this method of classification unless instruction is adjusted accordingly. Perhaps the next query is whether children achieve according to their abilities to a larger degree if the adaptation feature of ability grouping is exploited. Research on this aspect of the problem has been rather limited. A few studies, however, have been reported. Among the most recent is one which compared the achievement in standardized school subjects of two groups of exceptional children, all testing at or above 130 IQ (Stanford-Binet).³³ One of these groups was segregated in two special classes while the pupils of the other group were mixed in the usual manner and as chance would dictate, among heterogeneously composed classes. For a period of three years the children in the opportunity classes were permitted to advance at their own rate in the prescribed subjects of the elementary school. About half of the regular school time was devoted to the prescribed subjects. The rest of the school time was spent on a variety of forms of enrichment and intellectual work not included in the regular curriculum. By the use of the Stanford Achievement Test, accomplishment quotients (AQ's) were determined for each individual of each group.

The authors of the above study were concerned primarily with two comparisons of the two groups. The first was to find out whether pupils attending the regular classes of the elementary school show lower accomplishment quotients in subjects measurable by the Stanford Achievement Test, as

³³ H. A. Gray and L. S. Hollingworth, "The Achievement of Gifted Children Enrolled and Not Enrolled in Special Opportunity Classes," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 24 (November, 1931), pp. 255-261.

compared with the segregated groups. The answer here was definitely *no*. The second comparison endeavored to show whether enrichment of the curriculum in the case of gifted children, taught in segregated classes, causes them to fall low in the ordinarily prescribed subjects, as compared with those who attend regular classes without enrichment. The answer to the latter question was also *no*. There was a slight tendency for the pupils taught in regular mixed classes to show higher AQ's, but the differences were relatively insignificant. At least the implication is strong that the gifted children taught in segregated groups, though covering a large amount of intellectual work *in addition to that performed by the pupils in the regular classes*, show no deficits in the achievements measured. Whether the reader considers this ample justification for ability grouping will depend in part upon what he believes should be the standards for superior children in the regular subjects of the curriculum. If one assumes that gifted children have need for no greater skill in the common integrating knowledges and skills, like penmanship, spelling, arithmetic fundamentals, etc., than other children, then he will welcome the additional time saved for deeper intellectual tasks. At least it would appear that this is the one major criterion on which ability grouping can be justified. Whether comparable advantages (obviously of a different character) will accrue to the slow and average groups from this method of classifying pupils has not been fully established. Results from previous studies (in spite of their deficiencies in properly adapting instruction) seem to suggest that slower children profit by ability grouping.³⁴

Further evidence of the effectiveness of ability grouping when methods and materials *are* adapted to the mental level of the various groups is suggested by the results of an experi-

³⁴ For an analysis of the assumptions underlying ability grouping, see Alice V. Keliher, *A Critical Study of Homogeneous Grouping*, Contributions to Education, No. 452 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

ment conducted in Grade 7B of the junior high school at Lakeland, Florida.³⁵ The children of the seventh grade were divided into five ability groups upon the basis of past achievement. The second highest group, according to the method used for sectioning, and the lowest group were taken as the experimental groups. The other three groups were used as control groups. Before the experiment was begun the teacher searched the literature on the education of superior children for principles of method and other suggestions which were recommended by authorities for the teaching of bright children. The teaching procedures which were used with the superior experimental group were then developed in accordance with the recommendations of professional literature. In a similar way the literature on the teaching of mentally slow children was used to develop teaching procedures to be used with the slow experimental group. Every effort was made to adapt materials and methods according to the ability of each of the two groups and in accordance with the recommendations of professional literature.

The experiment continued for one semester. Results, as shown by reapplication of objective standard and informal tests, showed that the high experimental group had achieved more than its control group (which was of higher ability, it being the highest of the five groups), in which the conventional methods of teaching with no particular adaptations had been used. The facts of the study did not show a corresponding advantage for the slow experimental group, although the achievement of this group was equal to that of the next higher ability group for which special adaptations were not made.

On the whole, the results of this and other similar studies cannot yet be accepted as final, but they do suggest that some advantages accrue from ability grouping. Because of its very peculiar nature, the problem of evaluating ability grouping is

³⁵ T. Christine Young and H. J. Otto, "Achievement of Like Groups in 7-B Civics," *Journal of the Florida Education Association*, Vol. 10 (November, 1932), pp. 6-7 and 31.

very difficult. As Douglass points out, if the materials of instruction are not adapted, no true test of the possibilities of grouping is possible.³⁰ If they are adapted, it seems almost impossible to devise tests which will give comparable measures of the achievements of sections at different levels of ability and following different courses of study. It is quite certain that in the past adaptations to the different levels have been accomplished only to a mediocre degree, and if, in spite of this shortcoming and other deficiencies of past experiments, homogeneous grouping can demonstrate some advantages, it is very encouraging. Certainly much more careful research will need to be done on this method of classifying pupils before it can be generally recommended or generally condemned.

SOCIAL AGE AND CHILDREN'S INTERESTS AS FACTORS IN CLASSIFICATION

At a previous point in this chapter attention was called to the fact that most current classification procedures center around the child's capacity to surmount the intellectual hurdles established by graded courses of study. In so far as the emphasis in the curriculum is upon achievement in academic subjects, to that extent will the bases for classification stress heaviest growth toward only one of the purposes of the elementary school, namely, gaining command of fundamental knowledges and skills. If the school is looked upon as a place in which is provided a wholesome environment in which children may develop normal health and normal mental attitudes and ideals, social age or social maturity becomes a factor in classification which can hardly be ignored. The authors of a recent book call attention to the fact that a child whose social maturity is much greater than that of other pupils in his room is likely to become self-conscious, develop undesirable atti-

³⁰ H. R. Douglass, "Certain Aspects of the Problem of Where We Stand with Reference to the Practicability of Grouping," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 26 (January, 1933).

tudes which affect conduct and application to work.⁸⁷ Social age consists of a variety of complex factors which are extremely difficult to determine objectively. To date the most easily obtainable indices of social maturity are chronological age and mental age. The extent to which these items are the most essential factors in social age has not been fully determined.

Another thought which perhaps merits some speculation on the part of the reader is the part in classification which children's interests should play. If the administrator is anticipating that his teachers shall carry out "purposing teaching" in activity curriculum, consisting of projects and excursions centered around and growing out of children's interests, it may be desirable to give some consideration to the community of interests of the group of pupils assigned to a particular teacher.

PROPOSED CLASSIFICATION PROCEDURES

The problem of how to classify children has led to a multiplicity of techniques, as must have been apparent to the reader in reviewing the data regarding current practices. In fact, such diversity of practice is characteristic of current methods that it might be said that there is no generally accepted technique and no standard procedure for classifying pupils. The puzzled administrator who seeks a ready-made method which can be justified from all angles in the light of present-day psychology and philosophy of education will be disappointed. In view of the unsettled and relatively chaotic status of pupil classification, a number of educators have suggested techniques for classification which they believe are practicable. Only a few of them can be described briefly at this time.

McCall and Bixler have worked out a technique whereby pupils are assigned to grades and classes according to the Grade scores (commonly abbreviated "G" scores) obtained

⁸⁷ W. C. Reavis and others, *The Elementary School*, p. 140.

from standardized objective tests.³⁸ By the use of prepared tables the pupil's crude or raw score is transmuted into a G score.³⁹ The G score is assumed to express the ability or achievement of a pupil in terms of the achievement of the average pupil of a given grade throughout the nation. For any one pupil or group of pupils, G scores may be obtained on intelligence tests and as many of the subjects taught in the elementary school as one desires. Since the G-score technique transmutes the crude scores from different tests into common units, the various G scores for a single pupil may be averaged, giving each of the individual G scores such weighting as is desired.⁴⁰ The final score thus obtained is the "Gp" or Grade score for placement. After selecting which one of the three classification tables supplied by the authors is to be used (the selection of a classification table depends upon the standard of achievement in the school as compared to the norms), the pupil's final G score is found in the table and his grade placement determined.

A brief illustration is provided. Those who wish to adopt this method for classifying pupils will want to get the complete monograph by the authors. Suppose the series of examinations was administered during the first week in November and pupil No. 1 has a Gp of 3.8. In the G column of Table XXIII one finds 3.8 and the symbol opposite 3.8 in column 2 (column 2 is used because two months but less than two and one-half months of the school term have elapsed) is 3H. The statistical classification would thus place this pupil in the high third grade. Occasionally it may be neither feasible nor desirable to adhere to the statistical classification.

The second technique for classification to be described here

³⁸ W. A. McCall and H. H. Bixler, *How to Classify Pupils* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928).

³⁹ Tables for computing G scores on a large number of tests are published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University and by the World Book Co.

⁴⁰ Suggestions for weighting and combining G scores are given by McCall and Bixler, *op. cit.*, Ch. iv.

TABLE XXIII

SHOWING THE AUTOMATIC CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS INTO GRADES ON THE BASIS OF ANY G (GRADE) SCORE (FOR SCHOOLS WHICH ATTEMPT TO DO 1.0 STANDARD GRADE PER YEAR) *

G Score	Number of Months Class Has Been in Half of Grade It Is Now In					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
3.6	3H	3H	3H	3H	3L	3L
3.7	3H	3H	3H	3H	3H	3L
3.8	4L	3H	3H	3H	3H	3H
3.9	4L	4L	3H	3H	3H	3H
4.0	4L	4L	4L	3H	3H	3H
4.1	4L	4L	4L	4L	3H	3H
4.2	4L	4L	4L	4L	4L	3H
4.3	4H	4L	4L	4L	4L	4L
4.4	4H	4H	4L	4L	4L	4L
4.5	4H	4H	4H	4L	4L	4L
4.6	4H	4H	4H	4H	4L	4L
4.7	4H	4H	4H	4H	4H	4L
4.8	5L	4H	4H	4H	4H	4H
4.9	5L	5L	4H	4H	4H	4H

* W. A. McCall and H. H. Bixler, *How to Classify Pupils*, excerpt from Table VIII, pp. 38-39.

is one worked out by W. S. Miller.⁴¹ The purpose of Miller's survey was to classify into five ability groups (A, B, C, D, and E) the 1,989 6A pupils of the entire city of Minneapolis, taking into consideration both mental ages and intelligence quotients. There was no intention in the survey that all these 6A pupils should be assembled in one building or even in a few buildings so that the groups could be taught as hypothetically organized. It will seldom be feasible to do this in any city. Yet the technique is very suggestive and may be applied to smaller groups in a single building.

⁴¹ W. S. Miller, *The Classification of 6A Pupils into Ability Groups*, *Proceedings of the Second Annual Conference of the Minnesota Society for the Study of Education* (1924).

Miller found that the mental ages of these 1,989 6A pupils ranged between about nine years and twenty years. The range of chronological age was from nine years to seventeen years. The median chronological age was twelve years while the median mental age was thirteen years. The division of pupils was planned so that the average or C group would contain approximately the middle 50 per cent of the 1,989 pupils, the A and E groups approximately the best and poorest 10 per cent respectively, and the B and D groups the remaining pupils above and below the middle 50 per cent but not in the superior and inferior groups. Arbitrary standards of mental age and intelligence quotient were set as limits of each of the five groups. The first step in the classification was the construction of percentile graphs of the intelligence test scores of the pupils of the different chronological age groups. As Miller says:

[Figure 9] shows the percentile graphs of the scores of pupils with the chronological ages ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen. Percentile graphs for chronological ages nine, fifteen, and sixteen were not constructed because the number of cases for these ages was too small. The dotted line is the percentile graph for all of the 1,989 6A pupils.

Explanation of Percentile Curves—In the first column on the left of Figure 9 are the scores on Delta 2, the second column shows the mental age equivalents for the scores. In the five columns on the right are the corresponding intelligence quotients for the pupils of chronological ages ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen indicated as the five-column headings. The figures on the horizontal at the bottom are the percentiles. The percentile curves represent the percentile distributions by scores, mental ages, and intelligence quotients.

To explain the construction of the percentile curves let us consider the percentile curve for the fourteen-year-old pupils of which there were ninety cases. The papers of these ninety pupils were stacked in order from the lowest to the highest. Counting up 10 per cent of the group from the bottom, the ninth paper was found to have a score of 55 so a dot was placed opposite 55 on the vertical line labeled 10 at the bottom; the eighteenth paper, 20 per cent of the group from the bottom, had a score of 60, so a dot was placed opposite 60 on the vertical line labeled 20 at the bottom. In a similar manner the score for each of the percentiles was located and the dots joined with a

line which shows the percentile distribution for the fourteen-year-old pupils. In the same way percentile curves were constructed for each of the other chronological ages.

These curves are accumulative percentages curves and are read as follows: 50 per cent (bottom horizontal) of the fourteen-year-olds

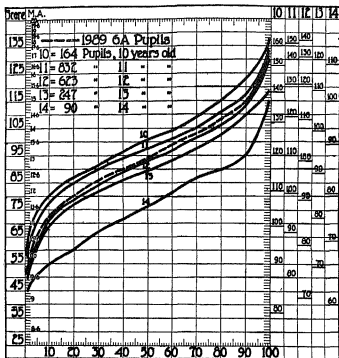


FIG. 9. PERCENTILE DISTRIBUTION ON HAGGERTY DELTA 2, 1989 6A PUPILS IN 64 SCHOOLS (MINNEAPOLIS, 1923).

From *Proceedings of Second Annual Conference, Minnesota Society for the Study of Education* (1924), p. 18.

make scores below 76 (first column left), or 50 per cent of the fourteen-year-olds have mental ages below 11—6 (second column left), or 50 per cent of the fourteen-year-olds have intelligence quotients below about 77 (fifth column right). An eleven-year-old with a

score of 100 (first column left) would excel about 5 per cent (bottom) of the eleven-year-olds and would be excelled by 95 per cent of the same group.

With this explanation and preliminary practice in reading the curves the classification procedure should be relatively simple. Let us consider first the classification of the ten-year-olds. Arbitrarily let us say that any ten-year-old to be in the A group should have an intelligence quotient of 130 (first column right). This would mean a mental age of 14—2 (second column left). The curve shows that 35 per cent of the 164 ten-year-olds or fifty-seven of them could qualify for the A group, all of them with mental ages 14—2 or above and IQ's 130 or above. To make this clearer, find 14—2 on the mental age scale (second column on left), follow a horizontal line from this point to the intersection of the percentile curve labeled 10; from this point let fall an imaginary perpendicular to the base line. The point of intersection is 65 which means that 65 per cent of the ten-year-old pupils have mental ages below 14—2. Hence 35 per cent have mental ages above 14—2 and IQ's above 130. By using the same procedure with the dotted percentile curve it will be observed that only 22 per cent of the 1,989 6A pupils of all ages have mental ages above 14—2.

For the B group thirteen years, the median mental age for all 6A pupils (see dotted curve), was set as the lower limit. Referring to the IQ column for ten-year-olds, it will be noted that the lower limit of IQ for this group is 119. The B group of ten-year-olds then falls between the thirty-sixth and sixty-fifth percentiles (bottom) including 29 per cent (65—36) of the group or about forty-eight pupils. Lower limit of IQ is 119.

For the C group, 12—3 was set as the lower limit of mental age since this is about the lower limit of the middle 50 per cent of all 6A pupils (see dotted percentile curve). The C group then falls between the seventeenth and thirty-sixth percentile of the ten-year-old pupils including 19 per cent (36—17) of the 164 ten-year-old pupils, or thirty-one pupils. Lower limit of IQ is about 112.

For the D group eleven was set as the lower limit of mental age. The D group then falls between the third and seventeenth percentiles including 14 per cent (17—3) of the ten-year-old pupils or twenty-three pupils. Lower limit of IQ is about 101. It will be observed that with their relatively high IQ standard the lower limit of mental age of this D group is only eleven years which is two years below the median mental age (thirteen years) for all of the 6A pupils.

The E group contains the remaining 3 per cent, or five pupils with mental ages below eleven years and with IQ's below 101. In a

similar manner arbitrary limits of mental age and IQ were set for the remaining chronological age groups.⁴²

Many of the classification plans proposed in professional literature have distinct limitations when one endeavors to apply them in the typical school situation. Perhaps principals will continue to find that the conditions under which most local schools operate are not such that the most scientific and progressive classification procedure can be applied in an ideal manner. Regardless of what proposed technique has been accepted as a part of the educational policy of the school, many principals will look upon the adopted plan as a goal toward which to work and will find it necessary at intervals to make such adaptations as the conditions in a particular school demand. Whichever one of the numerous schemes for classifying pupils is selected,⁴³ those responsible for the administration of the educational program of a school should scrutinize carefully the classification plan to test its practicability and the extent to which it is in harmony with the general educational philosophy and policy which govern the work of the schools. After all, the way children are organized into teaching groups has important bearings upon the effectiveness with which an educational program can be executed.

In the preceding paragraphs attention has been called to some of the limitations of certain procedures for organizing class groups. No doubt the major concern of every method whereby pupils are assigned to classes is to so select the pupils that maximum growth will accrue to all members of the group. Such data as have been gathered have shown repeatedly that

⁴² *Ibid.*, pp. 18-20.

⁴³ Additional suggestions for classification may be found in:

P. R. Mort, *op. cit.*

M. J. Van Wagenen, *Educational Diagnosis* (The Macmillan Co., 1926).

R. Walter, "Classification in the New Rochelle Schools," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 84 (April, 1932), p. 26

J. R. McGaughy, "Homogeneous Grouping of Pupils," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 6 (March, 1930), pp. 291-296.

it is practically impossible to obtain class groups that are homogeneous from the viewpoint of teaching and learning. Mass methods of instruction for all types of school work are rapidly being replaced by types of teaching which utilize extensively diagnostic tests for ascertaining pupil abilities and weaknesses and which provide materials and methods properly adapted to pupil needs. For certain kinds of activities it may be legitimate to permit each pupil to work and progress at his own rate. Other types of activities may be more fruitful in socializing values if pupils participate coöperatively. For the latter phases of the school program it might be desirable to have groups which manifest social homogeneity, rather than academic or mental homogeneity. Factors of social maturity and mental hygiene would thus become important criteria for classification.

In view of the individual differences in children and the emphasis being placed upon the socializing phases of education, it is recommended here that children be classified according to social maturity.⁴⁴ Pupils would thus be assigned to classrooms in numbers of thirty or forty or more, not on the basis of conventional teachers' marks or mental or achievement measures, but on the basis of social maturity. By social maturity is meant the all-round social development of the individual. It will include a consideration of such indices of maturity of general behavior as are manifest by the pupils' choices of types of games and play interests, books and movies, companions, and ability to direct their conduct according to accepted modes; in general, it is a measure of the whole social personality of the individual.

⁴⁴ Classifying pupils on the basis of social maturity is not a purely speculative and untried procedure. It is a plan which has been followed for several years in a number of public schools, some of which use group methods of instruction while others use the individual or Winnetka technique. The elementary schools of Wilmette, Illinois and Winnetka, Illinois are examples of the respective types.

See also F. T. Hardwick, "Classification by Chronological Age," *Sixth Yearbook of The Department of Elementary School Principals* (1927), pp. 211-216.

The interested reader may wonder how one is to secure a measure of social maturity. Perhaps the best indices readily available are chronological age and mental age. There are instances, as in the case of under-developed children or children of accelerated development, when chronological age will not be an index of social maturity that is feasible. If through careful observation by the teacher of the pupil's conduct, reactions, and group relations, cases of social maladjustment are discovered, they may be shifted to other classes in which they are not likely to be social misfits. The chief criterion for classification will be social maturity. A number of objective devices for measuring social maturity are available and may be summoned to the aid of the teacher.⁴⁵ The administrator must remember, however, that the objective devices for measuring social maturity which are available at present are not highly perfected instruments and must therefore be used with greater caution.

It is believed that classification according to social maturity will bring together into classes groups of children who will form wholesome classroom communities. Although children of the same chronological age manifest wide differences in mental ages, reading interests, and play preferences, there is sufficient community of interests so that there may prevail a wholesome environment in which all types of pupils will have opportunity to exert leadership, according to their special abilities.⁴⁶

⁴⁵ P. H. Furfey, "A Revised Scale for Measuring Developmental Age in Boys," *Child Development*, Vol. 2, No. 2 (June, 1931), pp. 102-114.

Lehman Play Quiz, see H. C. Lehman and P. A. Witty, *The Psychology of Play Activities* (A. S. Barnes and Co., 1927), Ch. iv.

P. A. Witty, "Measurement of Sociability," *Religious Education*, Vol. 27 (March, 1932), pp. 255-260.

M. A. Teal, "The Relationship between Height and Physiological Maturing," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 25 (March, 1932), pp. 168-177.

⁴⁶ "There is at hand sufficient experimental evidence to show that superior children mingle easily with other children, and as a rule show little difficulty in adjusting themselves either to an older or a younger group." *The Education of Gifted Children, Twenty-Third Yearbook of*

This will be particularly characteristic of the group activities. Atypical cases may be assigned to an older, a younger, or a different group of the same age without great danger that the shifted pupil will find strange centers of interest in the new class.⁴⁷

Classification by social maturity will obviously result in the formation of class groups, the members of which differ widely in abilities and academic achievements. It is assumed that the pupils within each classroom will be sectioned into two, or three, or more smaller groups for instruction in each of the subjects or activities of the curriculum. The classroom organization will be very flexible so that any pupil may be readily shifted from one group to another, according to his abilities and needs in the various subjects taught. For some activities the class will work as a whole, for other phases of the curriculum groups of various sizes may be organized. If desired, ability grouping, especially for academic subjects,

the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (1924), pp. 127-128.

"Plays and games in their spontaneous forms of expression are considered by many to be the best single indication of the development of children. . . . The play interests of children seem to be determined more by sex, as these figures indicate, than by intelligence. The correlation between opposite sex groups is always low, even in the same intelligence group. Between the same sex groups it is high, even if the intelligence group is different. There is little support here for a theory that play interests and intelligence are closely related in children." D. Fryer, *The Measurement of Interests* (Henry Holt and Co., 1931), p. 234.

With reference to play interests, Lehman and Witty, *op. cit.*, pp. 217-218, report significant differences between gifted and average children in the kind of activities engaged in but not in the number of activities.

⁴⁷ "Previous investigations of play with subsequent emphasis upon periodicity have tended to obscure the most important characteristic of play behavior, namely, its continuity. Any thoughtful attempt to characterize a particular period must bring the conviction that the obvious characteristic traits of each period have their beginnings in preceding stages and merge gradually into succeeding ones." H. C. Lehman and P. A. Witty, *op. cit.*, p. 74.

may find a place in this proposed classification plan. But whatever the nature of the work, materials and methods will be adapted to the varying abilities of the pupils. This implies enrichment of the curriculum for the abler students as well as adjustments for those less able. Competent teachers, skilled in the use of educational and psychological measurements, will employ these instruments as aids in the direction of their work and thus carry on teaching of a high order in an endeavor to obtain maximum pupil growth toward *all* the aims of elementary education.

A program for classification, such as proposed above, has significant implications for promotion, supervision, and the organization of the program for instruction. Each of these will be discussed more fully in subsequent chapters.

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CHAPTER VI

PROMOTION OF PUPILS

There is probably no single aspect of the organization of graded elementary schools which continuously confronts teachers and administrative officers in a more baffling manner than that of promotions. It is generally agreed that a school system should be organized and administered so as to provide for the smooth, continuous, natural progress of every pupil. Yet there are many vital questions that need be answered and many procedures that must be worked out before actual practice can attain that goal. If teachers and administrators at any one level and at different levels in the school system can coöperatively arrive at reasonable agreement as to the fundamental principles and the administrative practices which should govern promotion—i.e., the advancement of a pupil from one grade to another and from one school to another—perhaps the principal factor contributing to inarticulation in public education would be removed.¹

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF THE PROMOTION CONCEPT

The concept of promotion and periodic reclassification of pupils was found in elementary-school practice before the establishment of the graded school. The dame schools of the colonial period accepted children at the age of four and retained them until the age of seven, at which time they (at least the boys) were admitted to the writing schools and the

¹ *Five Unifying Factors in American Education, Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association* (Washington, D. C., 1931), p. 17.

English grammar schools, provided they could read. It was provided by the law that "no youth shall be sent to the Grammar Schools unless they shall have learned in some other school, or in some other way, to read the English language by spelling the same."² Secular Sunday schools were introduced into the United States in 1791 to instruct, gratuitously, children who had not learned to read and write. It was for the same purpose, and due largely to the inability of the existing dame schools and Sunday schools to reach the large numbers of children, that the public primary schools were established in Boston in 1818. The course of study in the primary schools was arranged into "four classes, viz: those who read in the Testament shall be in the first (highest) class; those in easy reading in the second class; those who spell in two or more syllables in the third class; those learning their letters and monosyllables in the fourth class; and that the books be the same in all schools."³ Complete mastery of the limited curriculum was demanded for promotion, which took place annually or every six months. The concept of grading and promotion was thus an essential characteristic of the educational program of children under seven years of age in the introductory unit which until well into the nineteenth century was not even an integral part of the regular elementary school.

As far as the writing and English grammar schools—the units which may be termed the regular elementary school of the time—are concerned, they too embodied grading and promotion from an early period. In the beginning, of course, instruction was largely individual, but as enrollments grew and group instruction became the prevailing practice, periodic reclassification was the rule. It is not known to what extent grading and classification of pupils were introduced into the writing schools, but by 1823 the pupils of the reading department in Boston schools were crudely segregated into four

² *Annals of the Boston Primary School Committee* (Boston, George C. Rand and Avery, City Printers, 1860), pp. 9-10.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 46.

divisions according to progress and subjects studied.⁴ In the Lancastrian schools, which flourished in this country from 1810 to 1830, the pupils were classified into groups according to attainments, the number of groups varying from seven or eight to as many as twenty-five or more.⁵ This system, although highly organized and strictly disciplined because of its size, was so flexible that promotions were readily made every six months or whenever a pupil was qualified to go on to the next higher class.

It is apparent, then, that the idea of promotion, which involved the establishment of standards of attainment, the evaluation of pupils' accomplishments, and the progression of pupils from one class to another as they met the requirements for the succeeding levels, was existent in American school practice from an early date. In fact, admission to the writing and English grammar schools was based upon the completion of certain academic standards. It is likely that, with the establishment of the graded school in 1848 and its subsequent universal adoption, the segregation into separate grades and separate classrooms of pupils of about the same age and attainments gave greater significance to the promotional policies of a school. The importance of promotional problems since the general adoption of the graded school may be implied from the surveys⁶ of promotional policies which have been made and from the fact that most of the earlier endeavors to modify

⁴ E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919), p. 226.

⁵ C. C. Ellis, *Lancastrian Schools in Philadelphia* (University of Pennsylvania Press, 1907), pp. 11 and 21.

⁶ J. C. Boykin, *Class Intervals in City Public Schools*, Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1890-1891, pp. 1003-1004.

E. E. White, *Promotions and Examinations in Graded Schools*, U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, *Circular of Information*, No. 7 (1891), pp. 16-21.

J. T. Prince, *Some New England Plans and Conclusions Drawn from a Study of Grading and Promotion*, Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association (Washington, D. C., 1898), pp. 423-432.

the rigid graded plan effected changes in the procedures relating to the promotion of pupils.

COMPLEXITY OF THE PROMOTIONAL PROBLEM

The whole problem of promotion is extremely complex and has intimate relationships with so many phases of the organization and the administration of the school that it is difficult to discuss it apart from its related setting. It is likewise difficult to isolate for discussion any particular aspect of promotion. The promotional practices of a given school are inextricably associated with the plans followed in the classification of pupils, the organization, content, and method of administration of the course of study, the size of classes, the instructional load of teachers, the organization of the program for instruction, methods of teaching, the types and amounts of remedial teaching that can be given, as well as other items that might be named.

A concrete example may illustrate further the complexity of the problem under consideration. Whether a fourth-grade child shall be promoted to Grade 5 or retained in Grade 4 will depend, not only upon the level of his own educational development, but also upon the general academic status of the other members of his class or other classes with which he would become associated. If ability grouping and differentiated curricula prevail in the school the question of promotion assumes new angles. Perhaps the child would do better if shifted to a group of lower ability or of higher ability, as the case may be. Perhaps the fourth-grade teacher may wish to consider such factors as the age and maturity of the child as compared to the general age status of the children in the various grades, the number of teachers to whom the child will be responsible if the instructional program is departmentalized, and the extent to which the teaching procedures of the receiving teacher provide for individual differences and remedial instruction. Of the many factors that the teacher might consider, the ones

that are likely to bear the largest influence in forming her decision regarding the disposition of the particular case are the ones which relate to the administrative policies and practices in the school, many of which would not be thought of as being intimately related to the question of promotion. It is hoped that these relationships may be brought out more fully in the subsequent discussion. Even though the problem of promotion has been isolated here for special treatment, the reader should bear in mind that in actual practice it cannot be separated easily from other aspects of organization and administration with which it is intimately associated.

CURRENT PROMOTION PRACTICES

Aside from the relationships which promotional policies have to other aspects of administration, the question of promotion itself has many integral phases. Among these are the time interval between promotion periods, the bases for promotion, promotion standards, trial promotions, the purposes and values of failure, and reports to parents. Each of these, and perhaps certain others, are taken into consideration by nearly all public schools in the formulation of their policies and in the application of current promotional practices. For clarity of discussion and analysis each of these phases of the promotion problem has been selected for separate treatment, followed by a generalized, coördinating summary statement.

PROMOTION PERIODS

For nearly a quarter of a century after the grading of elementary schools in the United States took place, the pupils were promoted but once each year. This meant that a pupil completed a grade each year unless he failed to do satisfactory work, in which case he was required to repeat the work of a whole year.⁷ The rigid standards and formalized procedures

⁷ "One method of administration places the several grades, as it were, in a series of rooms adjoining, but separated by a wall in which is a closed door. Once a year the door is opened for the passage of

which accompanied the development of the graded school with its annual promotions soon created much dissatisfaction and various attempts were made to correct the evils in the then existing graded system. The early attempts at reorganization were characterized chiefly by changes in the length of time between promotion periods. St. Louis, under the leadership of W. T. Harris, began a quarterly (at ten-week intervals) promotion plan as early as 1862, although it was not adopted on a city-wide basis until about 1872. Other cities shifted to a semiannual plan in which promotions are made in the middle and at the end of a nine- or ten-months school year. Each grade is usually divided into two sections, B to designate the first half of the grade, and A the second, or advanced half.

At the present time, with reference to promotion periods, school systems may be classified roughly into two groups, namely, those which have annual promotions and those which promote semiannually. Semiannual promotions prevail in nearly 80 per cent of the cities with populations of 30,000 or more, while the smaller cities prefer the annual plan. Data gathered by the Department of Superintendence in 1931 from 555 school systems show that within the preceding ten years fifty-one cities had changed from the semiannual to the annual promotion plan, and that sixty-eight had changed from the annual to the semiannual, as indicated in Table XXIV.⁸ At the time of the study there were forty-one school systems contemplating a change in promotion plan; twenty-six, or 63 per cent, of them were planning to change from the semiannual to the annual, ten, or 25 per cent, from the annual to the semiannual, while five systems, or 12 per cent, were planning to promote pupils at any time during the year—three of the latter five seemed in favor of quarterly promotions.

The above data seem to suggest an uncertain status re-

those who are provided with cards bearing the requisite percentage mark, and then closed for another year." J. L. Pickard, *School Supervision* (D. Appleton and Co., 1890), p. 91.

⁸ *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, op. cit., p. 65.

TABLE XXIV

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROMOTION PERIODS IN CITIES OF SIX POPULATION GROUPS

SIZE OF CITY	PRESENT PROMOTION PLAN				CHANGE HAS BEEN MADE IN PAST TEN YEARS		IS A CHANGE FROM PRESENT PRACTICE CONTEMPLATED?			
	Semi-annual	Annual	Blank	Total Number Reporting	From Semi-annual to Annual	From Annual to Semi-annual	Yes	From Annual to Semi-annual	From Semi-annual to Annual	To Any Time During the Year
Under 2,500	11	66	7	84	9	7	2	0	2	0
2,500-5,000 . .	20	81	8	115	16	16	7	5	2	0
5,000-10,000 . .	15	68	6	119	13	21	12	3	7	2*
10,000-30,000	59	62	4	125	10	16	10	1	8	1*
30,000-100,000 .	51	17	2	70	2	7	6	0	4	2
Over 100,000 . .	33	6	3	42	1†	1	4	1	3	0
Total . . .	225	300	30	555	51	68	41	10	26	5

* Several school systems which reported that they planned to promote pupils at any time during the school year stated that they leaned toward the quarterly promotion plan.

† Richmond, Virginia, has changed from semiannual to annual promotions in one or two of its schools, according to Miss Charlotte Staokley, Supervisor, Primary Grades.

Read the above table as follows: Out of 84 school systems in cities under 2,500 population, 11 have semiannual promotions, 66 have annual promotions, and 7 did not report on this point. Within the past ten years, 9 of these 84 school systems have changed from semiannual to annual promotions; and 7 have changed from annual to semiannual promotions. At the present time 2 of these 84 school systems are contemplating changing from the semiannual to the annual. Similarly read data from school systems in cities of the other five population groups.

garding promotion periods and a lack of agreement as to the most desirable plan to adopt if a change is contemplated. The Committee on Articulation of the Department of Superintendence gathered statements from 555 superintendents of schools regarding the advantages and disadvantages of the promotion plans then operative in their schools. The advantages of semiannual promotions, as summarized from the replies of 225 superintendents of school systems in which pro-

motions are made semiannually, and arranged in order of frequency of mention, are as follows: ⁹

1. Semiannual promotions make it unnecessary for pupils to repeat entire year's work, if they fail either on account of non-attendance, lack of application, or inability. A pupil frequently needs to repeat a part of the work of a grade, when it would not be wise for him to repeat the work of an entire year. Summer, or vacation schools are of more use when they can make up a half year for pupils rather than attempt a whole year.

2. Semiannual promotions result in a more flexible school organization—they make frequent adjustments possible.

3. Semiannual promotions make it easier to accelerate those of superior ability. Double and trial promotions can be more easily made. Frequently a pupil can do three terms' work in two, or he can skip a half year with less loss.

4. With semiannual promotions the cost of operating the schools is less. If it is necessary to have a pupil repeat his work, it is more economical to have the repetition restricted to a half year.

5. Semiannual promotions result in more frequent evaluation of the achievements of pupils. They force a careful evaluation of pupil status twice instead of once a year—in fact, they compel frequent judgment of pupils by teachers.

6. Semiannual promotions make it easier to accommodate the transient school population which enters by transfer from other school systems, especially from those systems where the semiannual promotion plan is followed. They also enable pupils forced to be out of school temporarily to return with minimum loss of credit and time.

7. Where ability grouping is not practiced, semiannual promotions usually provide fewer extremes in ability and achievement than do annual promotions. They tend to keep pupils of more nearly the same social age together.

8. The goal of promotion is more immediate where promotions are made semiannually. Pupils are stimulated to greater effort since there is an accounting twice during the year, and their goals are more real than when they are nine or ten months in the future.

9. Semiannual promotions result in less discouragement for pupils. They obviate the condition where a pupil relaxes effort early in the year when he knows he is going to fail, as is frequently the case in annual promotions.

⁹ These summaries are taken from *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, op. cit., pp. 68-73.

10. Semiannual promotions reduce the amount of retardation.*
11. Semiannual promotions permit midyear entrance. Some pupils gain a half year by entering at the middle of the year. Entrance into the kindergarten is not delayed for six months or more. Hence children are nearer the same social age when they enter.
12. Semiannual promotions result in more teacher contacts. A pupil has a shorter time with a poor teacher. Or if he doesn't get on well with a particular teacher, he has a chance to change sooner.
13. Semiannual promotions call for a definite curriculum for each half year. The result is that the curriculum is better fitted to the pupil. Basic curriculum units short enough not to become wearisome to teacher and pupil have to be provided.
14. Parents do not object so seriously if pupils are retained an extra half year in a grade as when they are retained a full year.
15. Semiannual promotions provide for administrative relief in the shifting of pupils and teachers if necessary.
16. Semiannual promotions help to hold pupils in school longer.
17. With semiannual promotions, each teacher becomes more of a specialist in his half-year's work.
18. Semiannual promotions distribute the enrollment load over the school year.

The disadvantages of semiannual promotions, as recorded by the same 225 superintendents and arranged in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. In small school systems, semiannual promotions bring too many small sections into both the elementary school and the high school at the beginning of the second semester.
2. Semiannual promotions require too frequent exchange of teachers; as a result a teacher does not have time to get well acquainted with his pupils.

*For objective data on this point, see: Harry A. Greens, "The Effects of Annual and Semiannual Promotions as Revealed by Pupil Progress," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 78 (May, 1929), pp. 67, 86, and 89.

See also: "Are Semiannual Promotions Desirable?" *Journal of Education*, Vol. 111 (April 7, April 28, and May 5, 1930), pp. 387-388, 471-473, and 499-500.

For evidence unfavorable to semiannual promotions see: G. A. Feingold, "Annual and Semiannual Promotions," *School Review*, Vol. 41 (December, 1933), pp. 747-758.

J. A. Lindsay, *Annual and Semiannual Promotion*, Contributions to Education, No. 570 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933).

F. C. Ayer, *The Progress of Pupils in the State of Texas, 1932-1933*, Research Bulletin of the Section of Superintendence of the Texas State Teachers Association.

3. Homogeneous groupings are more difficult to arrange when pupils are promoted semiannually. In many small school systems, semiannual promotions prevent homogeneous groupings.

4. Semiannual promotions often result in a loss of time in re-organization of classes at the beginning of each term. Furthermore, new situations may result in loss of time for pupils. Too often a child has just adjusted himself to a situation when he is taken away from that and put into another which also requires a period of adjustment.

5. Semiannual promotions multiply the work of organization and involve a great deal of administrative work.

6. With semiannual promotions, a larger teaching force is required because classes are smaller.

7. Semiannual promotions increase the amount of clerical work.

8. Pupils graduating from a school in midyear are at a disadvantage when they immediately enter another school. The school receiving them is usually not well prepared to take them at midyear.

9. High school promotion in midyear without having midyear graduation requires students to finish in $3\frac{1}{2}$ or $4\frac{1}{2}$ years, or in four years without graduation exercises.

10. Semiannual promotions make schedule- and program-making more complex.

11. With semiannual promotions, some teachers tend to withhold promotion in border-line cases because such pupils "will lose only half a year."

12. With semiannual promotions, some parents overstress rate of progress of pupils through the grades; others worry about children entering school at mid-term.

13. With semiannual promotions, work is more likely to become stale for teachers. When teaching the same half year's work over and over again, unprogressive teachers get in a deep rut.

14. Semiannual promotions encourage a teacher to think in terms of grade levels rather than pupil growth.

15. Testing and promotion expenses are doubled with semiannual promotions.

The advantages of annual promotions, as reported by 300 superintendents of school systems in which promotions are made annually, and listed in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. Annual promotions are easier to administer, particularly in small school systems. A number of superintendents of small school

systems wrote that annual promotion is the only plan feasible in small schools.

2. When pupils are promoted annually, a teacher has the same pupils throughout the whole year.

3. Annual promotions eliminate the necessity of having two or more half-year grades in each room in small elementary schools. One section per teacher permits of more individual work and better supervised study. He learns to know them well—their capacities and their inclinations—and he can more effectively adapt himself and the work to their needs. He has a longer time and better opportunity to work out problems after he has diagnosed them.

4. With annual promotions there is no loss of time due to period of reorganization at midyear.

5. Annual promotions lower costs, particularly in small schools.

6. Annual promotions do away with the small midyear classes.

7. The annual promotion plan does not narrow too greatly the scope of the materials of instruction which the teacher uses. Subject-matter can be organized and developed in larger units.

8. With annual promotions there is less disruption in the high school at the end of the fall semester, since there are no entering students. This applies particularly to the small high school. Several superintendents of schools stated that when midyear pupils did come into a small high school, they often found it difficult to make out satisfactory schedules. Some try to graduate in three and one-half years, which is undesirable in many cases.

9. Annual promotions make possible homogeneous grouping in small school systems.

10. Homogeneous grouping gives all the essential flexibility claimed for semiannual promotions.

11. Annual promotions are in accord with practice in most of the school systems of certain states. Hence pupils transferring from one school system to another usually fit into assigned places.

12. With annual promotions a smaller teaching force is required, particularly in small school systems.

13. The annual promotion plan makes it possible to run the school plant more economically, for fewer rooms are required.

14. With annual promotions there are no mid-term high-school graduates who usually have to wait until September to enter college.

15. Annual promotions conform with custom of the community.

16. Annual promotions offer more opportunity for emphasis on "the child" rather than on a set course of study.

17. Annual promotions give time in the summer vacation to make a very careful reorganization of the schools.

18. With annual promotions parents are more apt to learn to know their children's teachers.

The disadvantages of the annual promotion plan, as reported by the same 300 superintendents and arranged in order of frequency of mention, are as follows:

1. There is a loss of a whole year instead of a half year in case of non-promotion.

2. Annual promotions have a tendency to retard the superior child. It is harder to skip a whole year than a half year. When annual promotions are strictly followed out, bright pupils must mark time with the dull and average pupils.

3. Annual promotions are not flexible enough for the welfare of individual pupils. They pre-determine the time pupils must spend in school, regardless of their ability.

4. Pupils entering from systems which have semiannual promotions are in an unfortunate position, since under the annual promotion plan classes begin basic courses only once a year. As a result, students moving into a system having annual promotions often lose a half year.

5. Annual promotions sometimes reduce length of school attendance. When a pupil in one of the upper grades fails, there is often a tendency for him to drop out of school if he is required to repeat a whole year's work. He loses interest in graduation.

6. Annual promotions increase the amount of pupil retardation.

7. Annual promotions raise per capita cost, for when a pupil fails he repeats a whole year instead of a half year.

8. Annual promotions prevent beginners entering at mid-term.

9. Annual promotions make program-making in the high school very difficult, since pupils who fail at the end of the first semester have few opportunities to take up other subjects.

10. Annual promotions do not give a chance for a change of teachers for a pupil who needs a certain type of teacher.

The interested reader will profit from a critical analysis of the arguments pro and con, which have been recorded for the two major promotion periods prevailing in public schools to-day. A careful comparison will show that for every advantage of the semiannual plan there is at least one corresponding item which has been listed as a disadvantage of the

annual plan; and for every disadvantage of the semiannual plan there is at least one corresponding item recorded as an advantage of annual promotions. As far as arguments are concerned, the contest seems to end in a draw. The statements recorded above are the opinions of practical school administrators and should be given due consideration as the reactions and the experiences of persons who are endeavoring to solve in a practical school situation a difficult problem which is confronting them; but one must remember that research in this field has been limited and that there is practically no scientific evidence to prove the superiority of one promotion period as compared to another. Nearly all of the items in each of the four lists quoted above relate to administrative convenience; only a few of them pertain to pupil growth.

Perhaps it would be desirable to forget about the intimate relationship between promotion practice and pupil progress and to think in terms of pupil growth, pupil needs, and pupil abilities. It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to fit the educational growth of children into calendar periods which correspond to the annual or semiannual promotion periods. Even though standards of achievement have been well formulated for the completion of each grade or half-grade, there will be large numbers of children whose level of development regarding a particular phase of the curriculum will not reach the desired goal at promotion time. Certain groups of children will have exceeded the accepted standards before the end of the semester or year is reached while other pupils reach the desired stage after the promotion period has passed. The latter group would be doomed to repeat the grade if promotion standards were applied rigidly and the work of pupils could be evaluated accurately. Neither of these two things prevails in schools at present. It would seem wiser to abandon the notion that the end of the semester or year represents promotion time and to simply consider the completion of a calendar period as a reorganization period for the reassignment of pupils to classrooms and teachers. Pupil progress would be

considered as continuous and would be measured and expressed in units which would indicate the educational growth of children. The stage of pupil development would have little if any relationship to the periodic reorganization of the school. Especially would this be true if pupils were classified on the basis of social maturity. The reorganization periods would then be determined on the basis of administrative convenience.

THE BASES FOR PROMOTION

Although the time interval between promotion periods is important from the viewpoint of the principal who is endeavoring to formulate policies and plans for the administration of pupil progress, the most vital phase of any promotion plan consists of the selection and the application of the criteria on the basis of which promotion and failure are decided. Promotions may be based solely on teachers' marks in each of two schools which promote semiannually, but in one school teachers' marks are determined rather carefully by a comparison of pupil achievement with comprehensively stipulated statements of academic standards for the end of each half-grade while in the other school there is no printed course of study and no list of achievement goals for the various half-grades. Teachers' marks in the latter case may represent the teachers' best judgments, based on experience but not on specific discernible elements. It is not likely that the promotional plans in these two schools will be alike, except in outward, superficial ways. If a combination of several measures were used in each school, but applied in a different fashion, the promotion plans might be still more unlike.

A recent study showed that the measures which are applied when pupils are promoted from one grade to another differ materially in the school systems of the country.¹⁰ A total of

¹⁰ H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 5 (1932), pp. 66-68.

seventeen different measures or bases was reported. These measures are applied, singly or in combination, in 122 different arrangements. Although about one-fourth of the 307 school systems represented permit the promotion of pupils to be determined entirely on the basis of one measure, the large majority of systems prefer a combination of several measures. No one combination of criteria, however, particularly outranks any of the others in the number of times it was reported. No one measure or combination of measures was reported by more than seventeen school systems. A summary (Table XXV) of the total number of times each measure was re-

TABLE XXV

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE MEASURES USED IN THE SELECTION OF PUPILS FOR PROMOTION—SIX-YEAR AND EIGHT-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS *

MEASURES	TYPE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		
	Six-Year	Eight-Year	Total
	N †	N	N
Teacher's mark plus teacher's estimate of industry and initiative.....	119	87	206
Standardized educational tests	79	61	140
Intelligence quotient.....	39	40	79
Miscellaneous measures ‡.....	41	31	72
Teacher's mark only.....	35	36	71
Mental age.....	41	23	64
Two successive failures.....	35	25	60
Chronological age.....	34	21	55
Social maturity.....	25	15	40
Teacher's estimate of intelligence.....	19	18	37
Health.....	9	13	22
Extended absence.....	4	8	12
Total.....	480	378	858

Number of districts included, 307

* H. J. Otto, *op. cit.*, p. 87.

† N—Number of times each measure was reported.

‡ These include previous school marks, time when child entered school, achievement age, crowded conditions, teacher's judgment, teacher's tests.

ported shows that the teacher's mark and the teacher's estimate of industry and initiative were posited most frequently.

No endeavor was made in the preceding study to ascertain the relative weights given to each of the various measures used in selecting pupils for promotion. It is likely that the relative importance assigned to the different bases differs from city to city, or from school to school within the same city, depending upon administrative policies and the individual pupils under consideration.¹¹ The general lack of agreement regarding desirable criteria which shall form the bases for promotion presents a discouraging chaos.

PROMOTION IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL ¹²

Some readers may feel that the question of promotion is general for the entire period of elementary education and therefore should not be divided into separate treatments for the primary and the intermediate levels. Such dichotomy may lead some to assume that the elementary school should be thought of as consisting of two distinct units. Whether such division is undesirable is not certain. But in any event it seems that there are some problems of promotion in the primary grades which merit special consideration.

Reports of investigations pertaining to pupil failures in school have shown consistently that the largest percentage of failure occurs in the first grade and that reading is the subject of greatest difficulty.¹³

¹¹ For data regarding the relative weight given to "regular work," standard achievement test scores, and bases other than "regular work" in selected cities of Ohio, see B. R. Buckingham (Chairman), *The Classification of Pupils in Elementary Schools* (Columbus, Ohio, F. J. Heer Printing Co., 1925), Chs. viii and ix.

¹² Much of the subsequent discussion is summarized from H. J. Otto, "Implications for Administration and Teaching Growing Out of Pupil Failures in First Grade," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 33 (September, 1932), pp. 25-32.

¹³ A. O. Heck, *Administration of Pupil Personnel* (Ginn and Co., 1929), pp. 352-384.

Five Unifying Factors in American Education, op. cit., p. 53.

Inquiries about the causes of non-promotion in the first grade have usually produced a long list of items which superintendents and teachers believe are factors contributing to pupil failure.¹⁴ Among the various causes are such items as lack of mental ability, physical defects, etc., which some writers have reported may be charged against the child, while other factors may be charged against the teacher, the school, or the out-of-school environment.¹⁵ The one cause most frequently mentioned, regardless of the classification one may prefer, is inadequate mental ability. Apparently, school administrators and teachers believe that inability on the part of the child to cope with the academic tasks prescribed by the school is cause for failure. Let us examine more carefully some of the implications which are raised by the administrative policy suggested in this statement.

According to many recent writers in education, the movement for adapting school organizations and teaching methods and materials to the individual needs of pupils has been under way for somewhat over a half-century and has progressed to the point where the terms "individual differences" and "provision for individual needs" are the common parlance of educators.¹⁶ If the contention that it is the business of the school to adapt materials and methods to the needs of individual pupils is accepted, it is difficult to see how inadequate mental ability can be a cause of failure. It would seem that any school system which seeks to justify pupil failure on the basis of the inadequate mental ability of pupils is begging the question and is admitting openly that the school through its organization, curriculum prescriptions, teaching procedures, and administrative policies is not meeting the challenge of the best modern

¹⁴ *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, op. cit., pp. 52-55.

¹⁵ A. O. Heck, op. cit., p. 366.

¹⁶ Alice V. Kehrer, *A Critical Study of Homogeneous Grouping*, Contributions to Education, No. 452 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931), pp. 1-41.

Leo J. Brueckner and Ernest O. Melby, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), pp. 17-53.

educational thought. Obviously, many factors other than lack of mental capacity are operative and may perhaps justify non-promotion. However, it would seem that, if the best diagnostic and remedial measures available are applied according to the needs of individual pupils, there will be relatively few pupils who will not achieve to the best of their ability, and hence there will be little cause for failure.

A second issue associated with pupil failure in the first grade grows out of the curriculum requirements for this grade. In most schools to-day it is assumed that reading must be the major subject of instruction in the first grade. Except in the case of the few schools in which reading instruction is begun in the kindergarten, it is also assumed that systematic instruction in reading should be begun when the pupil enters the first grade. It is just naturally assumed that when the child begins school (Grade 1), the thing to do is to teach him how to read. It has always been that way! Perhaps it should be that way, especially in view of the fact that attainment in American elementary schools depends in such a large degree on reading ability. However, several factors arise which complicate the situation for the first-grade teacher.

Such scientific evidence as has been gathered points to the conclusion that children cannot profit materially from reading instruction until they have reached a mental age of six years and preferably six years and six months.¹⁷ If either of these two mental ages is taken as the opportune time to begin instruction in reading, most first-grade teachers are faced each year with groups of pupils admitted to school on a chronological-age basis—usually six years—whose mental ages have

¹⁷ Mabel Vogel Morphett and Carleton Washburne, "When Should Children Begin to Read?" *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 31 (March, 1931), pp. 496-503.

Erby Chester Deputy, *Predicting First-Grade Reading Achievement: A Study in Reading Readiness*, Contributions to Education, No. 426 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

W. W. Theisen, "Does Intelligence Tell in First-Grade Reading?" *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 22 (March, 1922), pp. 530-534.

not reached the point where instruction in reading could be expected to bring satisfactory returns. Thus, many teachers are assigned what would appear to be an impossible task, namely, teaching curriculum content to pupils who are mentally too immature to master the work. The inevitable results are that many pupils fail and that occasionally the teacher is labeled a failure when in reality neither pupil nor teacher is primarily at fault. Rather the failure may be charged to the administration in that its educational machinery is not shaped to harmonize with the educational needs of pupils.

As a means of avoiding the financial losses incurred and the personal losses to the pupil by non-promotion, several proposals have been made. Among these is the suggestion for a revision of the bases upon which pupils are admitted to the first grade. If capacity to do school work as manifested by mental age should become the criterion for admission to the first grade, a much larger proportion of pupil success than now prevails would be assured. If the grade placement of curriculum content for the first grade is to be considered so thoroughly and scientifically established that its present most commonly found status cannot be altered, then entrance on the basis of mental age is no doubt to be preferred. Under those conditions school systems which provide no kindergartens will find a large proportion of children (those of less than normal intelligence) who will be seven, eight, and nine years of age before they can enter the public schools. The advisability of such a policy may well be questioned. Even cities which operate kindergartens for all pupils of requisite age find difficulty in retaining the pupils of less than normal intelligence in this introductory unit until they have attained a mental age adequate to cope with the school prescriptions for the first grade.

A plan which is perhaps more feasible and more in harmony with the purposes of public education is to admit to the first grade all pupils who are chronologically six or approximately six years of age and then to provide teaching pro-

cedures and a type of classroom organization adapted to the educational needs of the pupils.¹⁸ After all, one of the major functions of a public school is to provide a wholesome environment in which children may grow up. The quantity of academic skills acquired during the elementary-school career and the exact time at which they are acquired is of secondary importance for many pupils, but it is of primary importance that every child be surrounded with, and have an opportunity to develop in, an environment in which right attitudes and ideals may develop. A school cannot make its full contribution to the development of a good citizen if a pupil is denied admission until the mental age is adequate to cope with the tasks prescribed by the course of study nor if failure—to say nothing of successive failures—seems to be the pupil's lot. Hence, it appears that the only defensible policy is to admit on the basis of chronological age and to provide such flexibility in organization, curriculum, and teaching procedures that the educational needs of various types of first-grade pupils will be cared for adequately.¹⁹

A third factor to be considered with reference to failures in the first grade pertains to promotional policies and standards. The data given in Tables XXVI and XXVII, which serve as a point of demarcation for this part of the discussion, were summarized from the *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence. The committee which gathered the data for this *Yearbook* received reports from over five hundred superintendents of schools in cities of various sizes with regard to the bases upon which promotions are made from the kindergarten to the first grade and from the first grade to the

¹⁸ One proposal for classifying first-grade pupils for instruction in reading will be found in the *Report of the National Committee on Reading, Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Co., 1925), pp. 30-35.

¹⁹ See also Mary M. Reed, *An Investigation of Practices in First-Grade Admission and Promotion*, Contributions to Education, No. 290 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927), p. 29.

TABLE XXVI

BASES FOR PROMOTION FROM KINDERGARTEN TO FIRST GRADE AS
REPORTED BY 505 SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS *

Basis for Promotion	Frequency of Mention
Chronological age	201
Teacher's judgment (largely of ability to do first-grade work)	159
Mental age, mental maturity	94
Test and examination scores	86
Physical maturity	57
Social age, social maturity, social adaptability	56
Achievement or accomplishment	52
Reading readiness	25
Fifteen other bases, each mentioned less than twenty-five times	

* Summarized from *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, op. cit., pp. 43-45.

TABLE XXVII

BASES FOR PROMOTION FROM FIRST GRADE TO SECOND GRADE AS
REPORTED BY 536 SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS *

Basis for Promotion	Frequency of Mention
Reading ability	277
Teacher's judgment (largely of ability to do second-grade work)	214
Educational achievement	165
Arithmetical ability	74
Standard tests	70
Chronological age	69
Ability to do second-grade work	57
Mental age	49
Social development and maturity	41
Writing ability	37
Length of time in grade	31
Language ability	29
Greatest good to the individual determined on the basis of case history	29
Size and physical development	26
Ten other bases, each mentioned less than twenty-five times	

* Summarized from *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, op. cit., pp. 45-47.

second grade. By careful analysis the committee found that the bases for pupil promotion at this level are practically the same in cities of all sizes. Consequently, the discussion which follows need not have reference to cities of various sizes.

Table XXVI shows that chronological age was reported most frequently as the basis for promotion from the kindergarten to the first grade. Mental age was posited as a criterion by less than 20 per cent of the superintendents. In school systems which do not maintain kindergartens children are usually admitted to the first grade on the basis of chronological age. Consequently, it seems that in the large majority of school systems chronological age is the deciding factor in admitting pupils to the first grade. Perhaps that is as it should be. What happens at the end of the first grade? The criterion for promotion to the second grade shifts from chronological age to reading ability, as is shown in Table XXVII. Chronological age, reported most frequently in Table XXVI, is found in sixth place in Table XXVII and was reported by less than 13 per cent of the superintendents. If all children admitted to the first grade on the basis of chronological age had the mental maturity which seems requisite for success in first-grade reading, little difficulty would arise. Unfortunately, this condition is not universal. Thus, the shift from chronological age to reading ability as the chief criterion for promotion makes failure inevitable for a certain proportion of first-grade children. Is it any wonder, then, that a large percentage of failure is found in the first grade? The very machinery and policies which have been set up to administer the schools make a large proportion of non-promotion in the first grade an inevitable by-product.

Another interesting feature growing out of the situation described in the preceding paragraph is the shift of emphasis or point of view which apparently takes place as pupils progress from the kindergarten to the first grade. If the reports from superintendents may be interpreted to be in harmony with the philosophy of those who have been interested in

promulgating the values of kindergarten training, then it may be concluded that in the kindergarten the chief center of interest is the pupil. Prescribed content, method, and activities are conspicuously lacking. Each kindergarten teacher studies her pupils, determines their strengths and weaknesses, and then plans activities in terms of the diagnosis, using as a guide her concept of the general purposes and functions of the kindergarten. Essentially, the center of interest is the pupil. What happens in the first grade? The data which have been drawn on seem to suggest that from the first grade on the organized machinery of the school is the important factor and that all who cannot surmount the scholastic hurdles designed by the school must be labeled failures.

Some administrators have met the problem raised by immature kindergarten as well as immature non-kindergarten children who have reached a chronological age which would warrant admission to first grade by organizing "connecting classes" or "junior first grades" for pupils not ready for first grade work. This would seem superfluous if designed to reduce the failure of slow children. Children who have low intelligence quotients upon entrance to first grade are fairly certain to retain them throughout their whole school experience. The problem seems to demand a curriculum for these children which will comprehend their whole school experience and thus eliminate failure and its resulting discouragement.²⁰ Such children are more prone to leave school at an early age, and an extra year or half-year in a junior first grade may deny the child that amount of time in the enriching experiences of the junior high school.

A problem, somewhat similar to the above one, arises at the end of Grade 1B in schools in which large proportions of children who are immature, unready for reading, or transients enter late and are enrolled in the beginning first grade. Usually these students become failures and thus tend to create unusually high percentages of failure for Grade 1B. Teachers feel

²⁰ *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, *op. cit.*, pp. 118-119.

that this is an unjust indictment against the work of the first grade. In some schools "connecting classes" called "reading preparatory groups" have been organized at this point and to them are assigned all pupils who are judged unready for the work of Grade 1A. If the majority of pupils assigned to such groups have low mental abilities, and if the ultimate result is the addition of one-half year to the time spent in the elementary school, then the attitude regarding the establishment of such groups should be the same as that regarding the "junior first grade."

Marked changes in curriculum content may be noted for most schools as children pass from the third to the fourth grade. New subjects are found in the course of study. Learning and school activity in general proceed on a higher plane. The interests of children are broadening and their powers are extending. Pupils are launching out into the study of a variety of subjects and the school is endeavoring to provide for children wide, rich, and varied experiences in many fields of interest. Reading skills, habits, and abilities definitely become the tools of learning rather than constituting the chief aims of instruction. Many factors suggest that children should have acquired the fundamental reading habits and skills before they enter upon the program of the intermediate grades. Hence some schools have established administrative policies which tend to retain children in the third grade until an adequate foundation in reading has been built. Frequently these policies are applied without reference to the age and maturity of the pupil. In spite of some merits which a plan of this kind may have, it would seem unwise to establish unusual hurdles or a final "catch-all" barrier at the end of the third grade which would tend to retard pupil progress and tend to accumulate retardation at a particular point. It would seem that a better plan is to permit all children to enter Grade 4 and to provide for the poor readers the necessary adaptations and remedial instruction. Teachers at all times will need to be ready to provide for the individual differences of pupils and

it is unlikely that rigidly applied promotion standards at the completion of Grade 3 will reduce materially the need for differentiated instruction.

PROMOTION IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES

In Grades 4, 5, and 6 promotion problems assume a character somewhat different from that in the primary school. The broader curriculum, the introduction of new subjects, and the shift in emphasis from reading to content subjects bring into sharp relief new factors in the determination of pupil progress. This is illustrated in the replies received from 493 superintendents to whom these two questions were addressed: "In which of the first six grades in your school system do the largest number of pupils fail? In what subject do pupils in this grade fail most often?" The replies indicate that in Grades 4, 5, and 6 the largest number of failures occur in (1) arithmetic, (2) language or English, (3) geography, (4) reading, and (5) history or social studies. Reading, it is noticed, has fourth place in difficulty for these intermediate grades whereas in the primary units it has first place. These superintendents were also asked, "In which of the first six grades in your school system do *next to the largest* number of pupils fail? In what subject do pupils in this grade fail most often?"²¹ Replies from 428 superintendents indicate that in Grades 4, 5, and 6 the subjects of most difficulty in this next to the largest group are, in order, (1) arithmetic, (2) reading, (3) language or English, (4) geography, and (5) history or social studies. These answers also indicate that in some cities the largest number of failures occur in one subject, while in other cities the largest number of failures occur in another subject. This is due chiefly to the varying importance and emphasis which different school systems attach to the same subject.

²¹ *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, op. cit., pp. 53 and 57.

Many additional data could be assembled from professional literature to demonstrate the large variety of promotional policies and practices which exist in present public-school practice. Teachers and administrators in each school system have struggled with the problem and have devised plans and procedures which they believe to be improvements over the previously used methods. In most instances the newly adopted plans correct certain recognized evils or disadvantages but at the same time the new plans almost always carry some unavoidable undesirable features. The ideal promotion plan has not yet been devised, and it is very doubtful whether it ever will be as long as pupil progress from grade to grade is to be determined on the basis of academic standards of achievement in terms of which the work of pupils must be evaluated.

A crucial point in pupil progress is frequently found at the end of the sixth grade. Junior high schools are commonly organized as separate units, at least apart from the elementary schools, and each junior high school receives pupils from several contiguous elementary schools. Articulation between the elementary school and the introductory unit in secondary education is not always at its best. Children from different elementary schools bring to the junior high school varying backgrounds of general and academic experiences because the educational opportunities, abilities of children, and standards of achievement may differ from one elementary school to another. Junior high schools in general are not yet ready or always entirely willing, for a variety of reasons, to provide adequately for the varying interests and abilities of children who enroll. The fact that in the majority of school systems promotion from the sixth grade to the seventh grade, in practice if not in theory,²² is based upon the acquisition of minimum essentials of subject-matter as outlined in courses of study and as evaluated by teacher judgment or the use of standardized tests, may lead junior-high-school teachers to

²² For data on this point, see *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, *op. cit.*, pp. 47-48.

anticipate a certain uniformity in the achievement of the children who come to them. Another factor which may contribute to this expectation of junior-high-school teachers is the fact that in nearly one-third (31 per cent) of 555 school systems the elementary school is looked upon as an institution which takes children of varying physical and intellectual capacities who are approximately six years of age and requires them to reach certain minimum standards of educational accomplishment before they are promoted to the junior high school,²³ and that in one-fourth of these school systems the superintendents believe that the junior high school shall admit only those pupils who have successfully achieved certain minimum accomplishments in the elementary school, even though this may require, in many cases, that seven, eight, or even more years be spent in the elementary school.²⁴ Such administrative policies necessarily result in much retardation in the intermediate grades, particularly in the sixth grade, and deny to many of the less able students the experiences of the junior high school.

It is apparent that policies and practices regarding promotion from the elementary school to the junior high school differ materially in the school systems of the nation. Part of the cause for the heterogeneity of practice may be the fact that the elementary school which concludes with the sixth grade is a comparatively new type of unit in the program for public education and thus has not thoroughly "found" itself. Another factor may be the complete assignment to the elementary school, in some quarters, of the objective which deals with the acquisition of fundamental knowledges, habits, and skills. In view of the disagreements which exist, the practical administrator will be casting about for a solution to this most difficult problem. To avoid denying to large groups of children, through elimination, the enriching and broadening experiences of the junior high school, it is recommended here that *all*

²³ *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 79.

²⁴ *Ibid*, p. 83.

children, regardless of ability or academic achievements, be admitted to the junior high school after having spent seven years (including one year spent in kindergarten) in the elementary school or after having reached age twelve or twelve years and six months. If this practice is followed the junior high school cannot avoid a modification of its procedures to provide for children of all types and abilities. It is doubtful whether a promotion plan as recommended above will increase materially the ranges and variations in pupil abilities above those existing at present in the majority of junior-high-school groups.

AIDS IN SOLVING PROMOTION PROBLEMS

The question of promotion has a number of related factors, each of which has been subjected to careful study by research workers, administrators, and teachers in an endeavor to find answers to the many puzzling problems which arise and to discover principles of procedure which might govern the formulation and application of more desirable promotional policies. Among the puzzling issues which still prevail in current practice are the unreliability and variability of teachers' marks, the absence of uniformity and specificity in promotional standards, the use of differentiated standards for pupils of varying ability, the place and function of standardized achievement tests and their accompanying grade and age norms, and the nature and application of general principles relative to pupil promotion. No doubt each reader will have no difficulty in supplementing the above list with several items which to him seem more vital than any of those listed. The extent to which a particular problem seems important will depend upon the circumstances immediately at hand. Space can be provided here for a discussion of only a few of the crucial problems regarding promotion and some of the ways in which teachers and administrators have endeavored to solve them.

THE SUBJECTIVITY OF TEACHERS' MARKS

Improvement in the methods used to evaluate the achievements of children has been sought for more than a century, perhaps many centuries. In America, as early as 1845, Horace Mann pointed out the weaknesses in the oral examination and formulated clear-cut concepts of the written examination and its superiority over older methods, such as the oral quiz.²⁵ Although the written essay-type of examination, which in time superseded the oral methods, had many advantages over other means of testing children's knowledge, its weaknesses have been recognized for some time. The chief defects of the traditional essay-type examination have been portrayed in new light through the studies regarding the variability of teachers' marks.²⁶ Studies have demonstrated repeatedly that if the same examination paper, whether in English, mathematics, social science, or some other subject, is graded by a large number of teachers on the basis of 100 per cent for a perfect paper the marks assigned may range from 50 to 98 per cent. Other types of studies have shown that frequently there is little relationship between the marks assigned by teachers and the actual knowledges and abilities of children as measured by standardized objective tests. In comparing teachers' marks in history with pupils' scores on objective-scale tests covering the information and thought phases of history, Van Wagenen writes as follows:

As already suggested, school marks are greatly influenced by the pupil's effort, by his attitude toward his work, and also by his personality. Such factors the scales do not measure, at least not directly.

²⁵ See excerpts from the writings of Horace Mann as reproduced in A. W. Caldwell and S. A. Courtis, *Then and Now in Education: 1845-1923* (World Book Co., 1924).

²⁶ For excellent summaries of the best studies regarding the variability of teachers' marks, see G. M. Ruch, *The Improvement of the Written Examination* (Scott Foresman and Co., 1924), and G. M. Ruch, *The Objective or New-Type Examination* (Scott Foresman and Co., 1929).

School marks are also influenced by the teacher's subjective standards of attainment. These are not constant but vary from teacher to teacher, and in the case of a departmental teacher may even vary from one class to another. How small a part attainment may actually play in school marks will be evident from the data of three sixth-grade classes selected at random from the same school system. A comparison of the mid-scores in the information and thought scales with the mid-final marks, Table XXVIII, shows that in all three

TABLE XXVIII

MID-SCORES AND FINAL MARKS IN AMERICAN HISTORY IN THREE
SIXTH-GRADE CLASSES IN THE SAME SCHOOL SYSTEM

School	MID-SCORES OF GIRLS				MID-SCORES OF BOYS			
	Information Scale	Thought Scale	Average Scale Score	Teachers' Average Mark	Information Scale	Thought Scale	Average Scale Score	Teachers' Average Mark
D	58	62	62	79	63	73	64	82
E	65	79	71	81	71	70	73	82
F	55	69	60	86	58	65	61	83

schools the emphasis was upon the thought phase of American history. As usual, the boys surpassed the girls in amount of information, but failed to obtain significantly higher marks even when they surpassed the girls in the thought scale as well as in the information scale, which they did in School D. In School F, where the boys were surpassed by the girls in the thought phase, they received lower marks despite their wider ranges of information. The effect of the teachers' varying subjective standards is strikingly evident in the assignment of the highest marks in the school (F) with the lowest average attainment, and in the assignment of next to the lowest marks in the school (E) with an average attainment a grade and a half above its nearest rival.

The further effect of the pupil's effort, attitude, and personality upon school marks is clearly shown in the more direct comparison of scores and teachers' marks in Table XXIX. In this are given the medians of the scores when arranged in five-point steps for the ninety-two pupils in the three classes. Although the information scores in the first and fifth groups differ by twenty points—more than three full grades—the marks differ by only a single point. In the case of the average scores, the average of the teachers' marks for the first

group is significantly lower than for the other groups. Yet in spite of the difference of fifteen points, or two and a half grades, in attainment between the second and fifth groups, the averages of the teachers' marks show no significant increases even from the second to the fifth groups. . . .

TABLE XXIX

MEDIANS OF TEACHERS' MARKS CORRESPONDING TO SCALE SCORES
WHEN GROUPED IN FIVE-POINT STEPS

Range of information scale scores	51-55	56-60	61-65	66-70	71-75
Medians of teachers' marks . . .	80	76	82	82.5	81
Range of average scores in information and thought scales . .	61-65	66-70	71-75	76-79	81-85
Medians of teachers' marks . . .	79	85	83	84.5	84

It is significant that several of the pupils of less than fourth-grade ability . . . receive higher marks in history than other pupils whose abilities center around the seventh-grade norm. . . . As one glances through the plate it is clear that many of the pupils with the highest scores receive only average marks, while many with average scores receive the highest marks. Surely the relation between attainment and teachers' marks is far from being a close one.²⁷

The causes of variability in teachers' marks are legion. Some teachers believe that marks should represent achievement only, while others believe that the attitude of the student, the effort which he puts forth, the improvement which he shows over a given period, and his deportment should be considered. Teachers' judgments vary as to the relative difficulty or value of questions asked. Teachers also disagree on what constitutes a correct answer. Standards of achievement for each of the school grades differ from one course of study to another and from one teacher to another. Some teachers emphasize one phase of a subject while others stress another phase. In arithmetic, for example, one teacher may stress the

²⁷ M. J. Van Wagenen, *A Teacher's Manual in the Use of Educational Scales* (Public School Publishing Co., 1928), pp. 59-61.

correct process to be used while some other teacher may mark only on the answers; in English composition one teacher may emphasize only the plot or theme of the story whereas another may lower the mark because of errors in spelling, English usage, or poor penmanship. Teachers seem to gain certain impressions of students, good or bad, and these apparently color most of their judgments. The extensive use of the written-essay examination, the reliability and validity of which are always extremely doubtful and in most instances very low, and which experience and experiment have shown cannot be evaluated fairly by human minds,²⁸ adds to the general confusion which exists in the methods used at present to evaluate the work of pupils and to assign to them marks which shall form the basis for promotion. Numerous attempts have been made to minimize or to overcome the undesirable features of conventional methods of marking and promoting pupils. Some of these are presented in the succeeding paragraphs.

USE OF OBJECTIVE METHODS

Although the written-essay examination and other subjective methods are still, and perhaps for some time will continue to be, the prevailing means of evaluating pupil achievement, more objective devices have found their way into school practice. Through the formulation and strict application of scoring rules it has been found that the variability of marking the traditional examination due to subjectivity of scoring can be cut at least in half.²⁹ Although the use of rules for scoring does not eliminate the subjectivity of marking essay papers, it will eliminate some of the unreliability present and thus tend to make them more useful.

The introduction of objective tests, informal and standardized, has given a new basis for measurements and their

²⁸ G. M. Ruch, *The Objective or New-Type Examination*, p. 20.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 105.

interpretation. Many teachers are using informal objective tests in place of the essay examination. The new-type tests are scored in an objective, impartial manner and yield point scores, the size of the point score indicating the number of responses correctly given. The problem which now confronts most teachers is the translation of point scores into percentage or letter grades which are required for record purposes in most schools. The significance of point scores depends upon the scores usually earned on the same test by groups pursuing similar work, or upon the scores earned by a particular group when the significance of a given point score in this group is to be determined. The point scores of a class are usually tabulated in a frequency table and are then translated into letter or percentage marks. To transform the point scores of objective tests into marks, the normal-curve hypothesis may be utilized.

Point scores on tests and teachers' marks are frequently confused. Point scores on objective tests are not equivalent to percentages under the old marking system, even if the test has exactly one hundred items. Suppose ten pupils take a one-hundred-item objective test and receive the following scores: 85, 76, 70, 68, 63, 50, 47, 45, 40, and 38. If these scores are confused with the percentages of traditional marking, only two would pass, assuming that the passing mark is 75. If, on the other hand, it is revealed that the norm for pupils of this school grade on this test is 40, all ten pupils probably deserve to pass. If norms on the specific test are not available, it is customary to arrange the scores in a frequency table, and to assign marks on the basis of the normal-curve hypothesis. The number of A's, B's, etc., assigned depends upon the particular system followed in the local school. Table XXX shows the percentage distribution of marks according to six different plans.

If standardized tests are used instead of the informal objective classroom tests, the teacher may experience difficulties if the median score in her group does not coincide with or

TABLE XXX

PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS ASSIGNED EACH MARK UNDER VARIOUS SYSTEMS THAT USE THE NORMAL CURVE AS A BASIS FOR MARKING *

Method	Per Cent of Students for Each Mark				
	E	D	C	B	A
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	7	24	38	24	7
2	2	23	50	23	2
3	3	22	50	22	3
4	4	24	44	24	4
5	10	15	50	15	10
6	10	20	40	20	10

* E. W. Tiegs and C. D. Crawford, *Statistics for Teachers* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930), p. 117.

approximate the norm for the test. In this regard Tiegs writes as follows:

As a rule, a teacher experiences difficulty even when she has approximately a normal distribution, if the mean of this normal distribution is either higher or lower than the norm of achievement of the particular standardized test. When the class mean and the norm of achievement as published agree the situation is relatively simple, but when they do not agree the factor of opinion enters in to a larger extent. When there are actual differences in achievement between groups, even though each group is distributed in approximately a normal manner, awarding marks in each on the basis of the normal distribution does not make an A in one group equivalent to an A in the other. If, however, markers would start from exactly the same norm and distribute their grades in approximately the same manner, the various marks in any group would tend to be equivalent to those in others. However, standardized tests are often ill-fitted to the needs of a particular community because of differences in pupil-capacity, in the course of study, etc., so that it may not always be advisable to take the standard norm as the point of departure. Where the contents of the standardized test seem to fit the local community, the teacher will come nearer to marking on actual achievement if she

will adjust her distribution of marks to fit that shown by the standardized test.³⁰

Many arguments, valid and otherwise, have been advanced both for and against the use of the normal-curve hypothesis. Tiegs has summarized the arguments against the use of the normal-curve concept as follows:³¹

1. It is unfair to use the normal curve when the number of students is small.

2. Normal-curve marking is unfair, because many instructors use it as if it were a sacred legal discovery.

3. Since normal distributions are never obtained except by accident, to use it overworks the accidental nature of test results.

4. The curve hypothesis does not apply in so many cases; for example, if twenty college professors in a field in which they are already expert take a test, shall one or two be failed?

5. There is no need of failures in a group if the subject-matter is adapted to the use of the individual student, and is presented to him on his level of ability.

6. Using the normal curve does not protect a child against unfairness on the part of the teacher unless it is based on objective measurement.

7. The use of the normal curve does not show differences between teachers and departments; in fact, its use covers up these differences, and makes every one seem to mark about the same.

8. The results of the Army-Alpha Tests, which placed teachers in the superior category, would indicate that in an ordinary school of education, and particularly in graduate classes, a grade of below C should rarely be awarded.

9. The normal curve should not be used on those who are taking preprofessional or professional work. Selection must be very rigid, not 75 per cent or 85 per cent of perfection, but absolute perfection in preparation should be the standard.

10. The weakness of the normal-curve-distribution idea is that although within groups students receive their relative ranks in a reliable manner, the A's, B's, C's, etc., of one group are not comparable to those of another because of differences in the groups themselves.

³⁰ E. W. Tiegs, *Tests and Measurements for Teachers* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), pp. 179-180. Quoted by permission of, and arrangement with the publishers.

³¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 180-181.

11. It is unfair to eliminate any one from work which is needed in connection with his occupation. This is almost sure to happen where the curve concept is used mechanically. It would be unfair to use the normal-curve distribution in a twelfth-year Spanish class, the only Spanish class in the lower division of a junior college doing work for advanced standing in the upper division. B's and C's in some classes are as valuable as A's in others.

12. It is questionable if the normal curve can always be used with large groups. Definiteness of objectives and efficiency on the part of the teacher in attaining them will interfere with the normal distribution. If the teacher must strive to get a normal distribution, she will neglect her teaching.

In spite of arguments to the contrary, the normal-curve hypothesis seems to commend itself to many who must mark. The arguments in favor of its use have been summarized by Tiegs as follows:³²

1. After much work with the normal-curve hypothesis, Starch says: "Really genuine reasons for large deviations of the normal curve with even classes as small as twenty-five pupils are much rarer than teachers ordinarily believe."

2. There is less opportunity to give arbitrary grades according to the whim of teachers.

3. It is the most reliable method of grading.

4. The use of the normal curve does little injustice, as compared with the giving of marks by teachers indiscriminately.

5. Using the normal curve helps the teacher who gives traditional examinations. Sometimes a teacher's marks are influenced by the way she feels at the time. Using the normal curve to guide her will make her raise or lower some of her marks and thus come nearer the truth.

6. If the purpose of grading is to measure and report achievement, then unequal previous training in the subject is not an argument against the use of the normal curve. In every class, there are people of unequal previous training.

7. The curve may be used advisedly. The normal distribution is only a guide and not a law. The purpose of education is primarily to teach and not to mark. Mechanical use of the curve is not necessary.

8. Curve rating causes competition among students of the same class, and this raises the general standards of work.

³² *Op. cit.*, pp. 181-182.

The normal-curve concept is usable as a point of departure wherever there is lack of knowledge or agreement on specific objectives or reliably ascertainable evidences of their attainment. Under present conditions this would embrace most of the educational program as now organized. The use of the normal-curve hypothesis, whether in connection with objective tests or otherwise, will assist in securing a more equitable distribution of grades and in systematizing to some extent the more or less haphazard, subjective, and variable methods of marking now commonly used. It must be remembered, however, that the whole procedure is based upon the assumption that there be a normal distribution of achievement. If the class is average and the distribution normal, there is some precedent to serve as a guide. But even at that, regardless of which scheme for marking (Table XXX) is adopted, a certain percentage of pupils are doomed to failure by the very nature of the plan. It is doubtful whether this can be justified. As Tiegs points out, "nature does not classify as failures its shortest leaves, its smallest trees, or its tiniest animals."³³ Because a child falls in the lowest 5 or 7 per cent of the group is no index to either success or failure. If his present achievement is related to his native ability or initial achievement at a preceding period, he may have made greater progress than any one of the pupils whose scores fell in the upper 5 per cent of the group. The writer holds that the normal-curve hypothesis, although useful as a stepping-stone to sounder methods, is not a desirable and justifiable solution to the problems of marking and promotion.

THE USE OF MINIMUM PASSING MARKS

In an endeavor to improve the standards of work and the promotional practices, some school systems have made extensive efforts to establish and to systematize the minimum passing mark. In order to divide the pupils at the end of the term

³³ E. W. Tiegs, *Tests and Measurements for Teachers*, p. 183.

into two groups, those who shall pass and those who shall be retained, it is necessary to establish criteria on the basis of which this differentiation can be made. It has been customary in most schools to name certain percentage or letter grades as the minimum mark which a pupil may receive and still be classified among those who are to be promoted to the next higher grade. This "passing mark" has been thought of as more or less absolute and stable and the goal of students has been to reach or to exceed this passing mark. Schools which required 75 or 80 per cent as the minimum passing mark were considered better than those which conditioned at 60 and passed at 70 per cent. Frequently the letters *A*, *B*, *C*, etc. are used, but invariably they are thought to have corresponding percentage equivalents. That this concept of a standard is erroneous has been demonstrated nicely by Tiegs.²⁴ His illustration follows:

Let us assume that three good schools, *A*, *B*, and *C*, are as nearly alike as possible in regard to equipment, pupil ability, teaching, and supervisory service, etc. All have a passing mark of 75. School *A* believes that this is somewhat too high and makes 70 per cent the passing mark, but School *C* feels that "standards should be raised and not lowered" and decides to raise the passing mark to 80 per cent. Each school goes on doing the best work of which it is capable, and there is no change in the comparable conditions mentioned.

At the end of a semester the marks awarded, and a summary of marks for each school, are presented in Table XXXI.

An examination of Table XXXI reveals that while School *A* passes students at 70 per cent and School *C* at 80 per cent, School *A* awarded marks of 90 per cent or more to only 5 per cent of its students, while School *C* awarded this mark to 21 per cent of its students. Similarly, School *A* awarded 35 per cent of its students a mark of 80 per cent or better; School *B* awarded this mark to 81 per cent; and School *C* to 97 per cent. Finally, in School *C*, all students except 3 per cent passed; in School *B*, all except 4 per cent passed; and in School *A* with the lowest passing mark, 7 per cent were considered unworthy of passing.

Since the work of these three schools was equally meritorious and

²⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 30-32.

TABLE XXXI

PASSING MARKS AND STANDARDS OF WORK

NUMBER OF STUDENTS RECEIVING A MARK OF:	PER CENT OF STUDENTS OF EACH SCHOOL RECEIVING MARKS OF COLUMN I		
	School A Passing Mark—70	School B Passing Mark—75	School C Passing Mark—80
I	II	III	IV
90 or more. .	5	10	21
85-89. . . .	12	18	56
80-84.	18	53	20
75-79.	33	15	2
70-74.	25	4	0
Below 70. . . .	7	0	1
Totals. . .	100	100	100

they differed only in their choice of passing marks, we should have to conclude that not School C, but School A, had the most stringent requirements for passing. Unfortunately, the different methods of estimating the class work of pupils, of marking traditional examinations, and of rating pupils on achievement generally are so variable and unreliable as to constitute no adequate basis for comparison of relative merits of these schools.

With conditions such as have been described, it is not the *passing mark*, but the *number passed* which probably is more significant. The so-called passing mark is not an absolute and stable standard, but one which varies with the difficulty of assigned tasks, the time given for completion of tasks, the preparation, ability, and health of the teacher, the ability of pupils, and other factors. Students who receive 80 per cent in algebra one semester are not necessarily similar in achievement with those who received this mark the previous semester; they may vary considerably above or below. Students receiving this mark at the end of the same semester from the same teacher may in reality differ greatly in achievement. Students marked high by one teacher are marked low by another. Frequently many students are marked too high or too low. The passing mark as a standard of work is, and always has been, a fiction.

THE FORMULATION OF SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES IN THE COURSE OF STUDY

Another method which some school systems have used to improve promotional practices is the formulation of specific objectives in the course of study. For each subject, especially the academic subjects, and each grade desirable goals of attainment are stated in rather concrete terms. It is hoped that these specifically formulated objectives will give teachers a more tangible basis for the evaluation of pupil achievement. Another purpose of this is to standardize promotions throughout the system so that pupils who transfer from one school to another may fit harmoniously into the work of the corresponding grade in the new school, and that teachers of each succeeding grade may know the precise academic status, or at least the minimum accomplishments, of the students who come to them.

It is doubtful whether the practice described above achieves its purposes, and, if it does accomplish its ends, whether those ends are desirable and can be justified. There is little doubt but that concretely stated goals will enable teachers to evaluate the work of pupils more accurately than if only broad, general objectives were listed. But *how much* more accurately it is done is not certain. The subjective methods for evaluating pupil achievement that are commonly used in public schools and the many subjective and frequently irrelevant factors which enter into the assignment of marks lend misgivings to the effectiveness of the enterprise.

If teachers throughout the system understand that the specifically formulated objectives constitute the standards for promotion from grade to grade, some teachers are likely to become disgruntled if some of the pupils they receive do not measure up. Frequently there arise unwholesome faculty relations, unfavorable attitudes toward the less able student, or a pernicious game of "passing the buck" which results in a neglect of the student who comes ill prepared. Some teachers

feel that an injustice has been done them if they are called upon to do remedial teaching in fields of subject-matter which belong in preceding grades and for the teaching of which other teachers have been paid but have neglected to do. Of course, such attitudes on the part of teachers manifest gross ignorance regarding child growth and the functions of a teacher. It is quite obvious that many children of less than normal ability will not be able to attain these definitely stated goals which have been formulated for the middle or average group. Yet it is administratively inconvenient to refuse promotion to all the pupils who do not attain these goals. Hence, the system fails as a method for the improvement of promotional practices.

It is well that the above system fails to function in practice. To formulate specific objectives to guide teachers is desirable but it would be very unfortunate if in the present stage of educational science school systems everywhere should establish a series of specifically stated academic hurdles which each pupil would have to pass in succeeding order before he could be promoted to the next higher grade. Such a practice would be out of harmony with the aims and functions of modern elementary education and would tend to cast aside much of the progress which has been made toward the recognition of individual differences.

DIFFERENTIATED STANDARDS

Many school systems have acknowledged the administrative difficulties which arise in trying to maintain one uniform set of standards of achievement for all pupils and the futility of expecting all pupils to attain the same levels of accomplishment. Remedies have been sought through the establishment of differentiated standards for pupils of different levels of ability. Schools in which homogeneous grouping is practiced and differentiated curricula are applied invariably establish higher goals of achievement for the superior sections than for

the average groups, and higher standards for the latter than for classes of low ability. Such practice is to be commended since it tends to avoid many of the undesirable conditions which develop if uniform standards are applied to all children. It is a recognized fact that pupils of low mental ability cannot attain levels of academic proficiency which are within the comparatively easy reach of normal or bright children. To expect mentally slow pupils to achieve the standards developed for average groups sets an impossible task for both teacher and pupil. Wholesome instruction cannot result if teachers feel obligated to demonstrate pupil achievement which is beyond the mental capacities of the students.

In reality, differentiated standards of achievement are not a new venture in educational practice. There have always been wide differences in the accomplishments of a group of children promoted to the same grade by the same teacher. If the pupils of an unselected group are promoted on the basis of a uniform standard for all, either many pupils will fail or the standard is so low that even the less able ones can attain it—forgetting for the moment the errors of judgment in evaluating pupil achievement. In either case there will be some pupils who far exceed whatever standard is used.

Differentiated standards give administrative recognition to a practice which perhaps has always existed. Such administrative action doubtless has a wholesome influence over teaching procedures and teacher-pupil relations. Although evidence is lacking, it is not likely that differentiated standards will lower the actual accomplishments of children or the quality of work in the schools. It is also doubtful whether differentiated standards offer an *adequate* solution to the problems of promotion. Non-promotion and failure still remain as characteristic features of the plan, although obviously the application of varying standards to groups of different levels of ability will tend to reduce the percentage of failure.

THE USE OF TEST NORMS

Since standard achievement tests have come to be used more extensively in public schools, professional workers have been endeavoring to find the proper function and place of these instruments in the administration of promotions. In a few schools the grade norms on various standardized subject-matter tests have been substituted for previously used promotion standards. Grade norms on standardized tests have thus become the successive hurdles which children have been expected to mount in their progress from grade to grade. In so far as test norms usually represent average or mediocre achievement, the practice may have some merit. Another advantage is that pupil achievement is compared, not with an arbitrary goal, but with one which automatically reflects the difficulty of the test, the adequacy of teaching, the correctness of the time allowance, and certain other factors; in other words, the grade norm is a reasonable and attainable goal.

The writer believes, however, as do many principals of elementary schools, that it would be unfortunate to adopt generally promotional plans in which the grade norms on standardized objective subject-matter tests would constitute the goals on the basis of which pupil progress from grade to grade would be determined. Such practice would introduce into the schools a standardizing force such as American education has never experienced. Promotional practices might develop which would differ only in character from the rigidly formalized plans which were in vogue during the middle of the nineteenth century and which we have unsuccessfully tried to eradicate for the past fifty years.

The use of age norms has also been proposed as a possible aid in the solution of promotion problems. Age norms are theoretically more accurate than grade norms because chronological age is more objective and definite than grade location. Because the correlations between achievement and chronological age are not very high, certainly much lower than correlations between achievement and mental age, it would seem

that mental-age norms would be more useful than chronological-age norms. In either case it would seem that age norms are more useful as a basis for assigning marks and in ascertaining whether or not a pupil is working to capacity than as a basis for promotion. As standards for promotion, age norms are of little more value than grade norms.

The question may also arise as to the uses to which the various quotients—the A.Q., E.Q., the progress quotient, and the subject quotients—may be put in the administration of promotion plans. These quotients indicate the rate of growth in achievement as compared to mental or chronological age. A possible exception is the progress quotient which is obtained by dividing the average chronological age of pupils in the grade by the chronological age of an individual pupil. None of the quotients indicates the level of educational attainment and thus have no close relationships with standards of achievement for the different grades.

DRIVES TO REDUCE FAILURE

High percentages of failure have induced some administrators to initiate drives to reduce failure and thus to effect improvements in promotional practices. Table XXXII shows

TABLE XXXII

NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PUPILS WHO FAILED TO RECEIVE PASSING MARKS IN THE VARIOUS SUBJECTS AT EACH OF FOUR REPORT PERIODS DURING 1929-1930

REPORT PERIOD	SUBJECTS								TOTAL
	Arith.	Read.	Spell.	Lang.	Hist.	Geog.	Gen. Sci.	Hygiene	
First . . .	232	122	146	74	79	45	21	5	724
Second . .	201	121	144	73	59	49	12	5	662
Third . . .	213	125	151	67	62	48	7	5	676
Fourth . .	203	109	106	75	60	52	10	8	623

the changes in the number of pupils who received failing marks at each of four periods at which report cards were issued. A drive to reduce failures was begun after the first report period.³⁵ Changes in the number of failures are most noticeable between the first and second issuance of report cards, although subsequent reductions were effected. Table XXXIII shows the percentage of pupils who received unsatisfactory marks in one or more subjects at the fourth report period.

TABLE XXXIII

PERCENTAGE OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS FAILING IN ONE OR MORE SUBJECTS AT THE FOURTH PERIOD DURING 1929-1930, ARRANGED BY GRADES AND SCHOOLS WITHIN THE CITY

Grades	Schools											Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
1-B	11.1	0.0	20.0	10.0	12.5	10.0	0.0	19.0	12.5	16.7	25.1	12.6
1-A	3.8	3.3	8.8	0.0	14.5	16.0	0.0	16.7	11.8	4.2	18.5	8.7
2-B	0.0	0.0	15.4	31.3	0.0	13.6	12.5	0.0	6.7	23.0	23.1	11.1
2-A	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.3	17.6	0.0	5.0	0.0	8.0	0.0	18.8	8.1
3-B	6.7	0.0	4.8	0.0	16.1	22.2	16.7	11.1	5.3	7.7	14.3	10.2
3-A	0.0	10.7	6.5	0.0	9.7	0.0	5.8	0.0	7.7	0.0	18.8	5.3
4-B	6.3	15.2	12.5	20.0	11.8	18.3	42.9	7.7	0.0	27.8	4.5	13.9
4-A	9.5	2.5	10.0	0.0	16.1	4.5	0.0	22.2	0.0	0.0	9.1	7.8
5-B	14.3	0.0	6.7	0.0	5.3	28.4	15.4	18.5	0.0	9.5	7.7	9.5
5-A	0.0	12.5	9.1	0.0	0.0	8.3	9.5	15.0	23.5	0.0	5.6	8.7
6-B	13.5	0.0	4.8	8.5	5.5	0.0	5.6	12.5	20.0	12.5	6.7	7.4
6-A	4.0	0.0	5.9	7.4	0.0	9.5	6.7	0.0	11.1	0.0	11.5	5.4

Drives to reduce failure are carried on in a number of ways. The techniques vary from autocratic proclamations by the superintendent or principal to teachers' discussion groups, professional study, and intensive case-study and remedial methods to enable the slow pupils to achieve better. Drives

³⁵ From an unpublished study by R. W. Fairchild while serving as superintendent of schools, Elgin, Illinois.

to reduce failure are fraught with dangers which frequently operate to no advantage. If administrative pressure to reduce failures merely results in a larger percentage of children being promoted—a result which in itself may be worth-while—it is unlikely that any permanent improvements in promotional practices will accrue. Merely to change the percentage of failure from 10 to 5 or from 5 to 1 lowers the standards of work and engenders no educational advantages to children. Unless such drives can be conducted in a manner which will produce in teachers greater professional knowledge and instructional skill of a higher order and will insure greater attention to the needs and abilities of individual pupils, thus resulting in a more extensive use of diagnostic and remedial devices and a greater degree of adaptation of materials and methods to individual differences, they serve few worth-while ends. The effects upon the educational growth and welfare of children should be the criteria for the evaluation of any administrative device.

TRIAL PROMOTIONS

Trial promotions constitute a device which has been used for a long time as a palliative of promotional plans. Rather than to fail a pupil outright, the pupil is given a conditional promotion to the next higher grade with the clear understanding that he will be demoted to the original grade after a month or six weeks if he does not show satisfactory achievement. The extent to which trial promotions are used as an administrative device in public schools may be implied from the fact that in the judgment of 76 per cent of five hundred superintendents of schools (Table XXXIV) trial promotions are desirable.

Many arguments have been posited, both pro and con, regarding the values of trial promotions.³⁶ Most of these statements have not been subjected to experimental evaluation.

³⁶ A summary of these arguments may be found in *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, *op. cit.*, pp. 75-78.

TABLE XXXIV

JUDGMENTS OF 555 SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS REGARDING THE DESIRABILITY OF TRIAL PROMOTIONS *

SIZE OF CITY	ARE TRIAL PROMOTIONS DESIRABLE? *					
	Yes		No		Blank	Total
	Number	Per Cent of Those Replying	Number	Per Cent of Those Replying		
Under 2,500 . .	53	68	25	32	6	84
2,500- 5,000...	83	81	19	19	13	115
5,000-10,000...	78	74	28	26	13	119
10,000-30,000 .	91	80	24	20	10	125
30,000-100,000..	51	80	12	20	7	70
Over 100,000....	25	70	11	30	6	42
Total	381	76	119	24	55	555

* From *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, op. cit., p. 74.

Without rehearsing the arguments in detail, one may raise the fundamental question as to the place of trial promotions in a modern educational program. As a rule, trial promotions signify the uncertainty of the judgments on the basis of which promotions are made and, rather than for teachers and principals to accept the responsibility for errors of judgment, the responsibility is thrown upon the child. If after trial the child fails, at least the educators are not to blame, even though admittedly the bases for the decision to demote the child are as subjective and questionable as those used in granting him a trial promotion. Trial promotions represent an open admission that current promotional practices are grossly inadequate in the light of modern educational science.

The results of several studies which have been made of trial promotions are very suggestive. In one investigation, con-

ducted in Springfield and Decatur, Illinois, under the direction of H. T. McKinney, teachers were requested at the close of the first semester of 1918-1919 to make out the usual lists of promoted and non-promoted pupils.⁸⁷ After these lists were in the hands of the superintendent, teachers were informed that all children were to be placed in the next higher grade. The probationary period for pupils not originally recommended for promotion was to last six weeks, during which time every effort was to be made on the part of teachers to cause probationary pupils to make good their promotions. At the end of the probationary period it was found that 75 per cent of the conditionally promoted pupils were retained in the higher grade. At the close of the school year it was found that more than half of the 1,145 pupils promoted on trial in February were recommended unconditionally for promotion in June. An interesting feature of this study is the fact that responsibility for the success of the conditionally promoted children was placed upon the *receiving* teacher. Each teacher was encouraged to use a variety of remedial devices to aid the pupil to maintain his status in the new grade. All teachers were required to keep on forms prepared for the purpose a record of the remedial measures used with each pupil. The results of the study suggest the feasibility and effectiveness of the diagnosis of individual needs and remedial teaching as substitutes for failure.

Another study in this field was undertaken in Long Beach, California, during the school year 1927-1928. Because of a growing feeling that repeating a grade was of no real value, the study attempted to answer two questions: (1) Of two equated groups of potential failures, one group repeating and the other promoted on trial, which group shows the greater achievement during the succeeding time? (2) From the results observed, does it appear that requiring a pupil to repeat a

⁸⁷ Summarized in *First Annual Report* of the Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois Bulletin Series, Vol. 17, No. 9 (October 27, 1919), pp. 16-17.

grade is justified?³⁸ One week before the close of the first semester the names of all pupils who would be expected to repeat the grade were reported, together with their grade placement, chronological age, mental age, intelligence quotient, and sex. The 141 pupils thus reported were assigned to two equal groups, taking into consideration the above named types of data. The members of one group were promoted on trial, while those of the other group were kept in the same grade a second term. To obtain an index as to the educational growth of children, the Stanford Achievement Test was used in Grades 4 to 6 whereas the Haggerty Reading Test and the Cleveland Survey Test in Arithmetic were used in Grades 2A through 3A. All tests were given at the beginning and at the end of the semester.

Due to the shift of tourist population the study concluded with about fifty pupils in each group. These one hundred children were distributed in Grades 2A-6B. Analyses of the results of the study warranted the authors to make the following conclusions:

1. Of two equated groups of potential failures, the trial promotion group shows greater progress during the succeeding term than does the repeating group.

- (1) Children of normal ability gain more from trial promotion than do children of equal ability from repeating a grade.

- (2) Children of less than average ability gain little more by repeating a grade than they gain by trial promotion.

- (3) Pupils in Grades 4-6 profit more from a trial promotion plan than do those in Grades 2 and 3.

2. The indications are that we are not justified in requiring a child of normal ability to repeat in Grades 4-6.

- (1) The trial group shows greater average gain in educational tests than does the repeat group.

The two studies just summarized have very significant implications. They not only answer pertinent questions regard-

³⁸ Vivian Klene and E. P. Branson, "Trial Promotion Versus Failure," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. 8, No. 5 (Los Angeles, California, January, 1929), pp. 6-11.

ing trial promotions, but they also challenge the whole promotional machinery of public schools. When the practice of promoting on trial is evaluated in terms of the percentage subsequently demoted, the percentage of cases who sustain themselves in the new grade, or the proportion which receives subsequent regular promotions as determined by teachers' marks and judgments, one may question the reliability of the results. Since it is frequently embarrassing to demote a pupil, a trial promotion usually means a permanent promotion. Also, if the proposed failures are selected by subjective methods which may be in error as to the true educational status of the pupils, those who are promoted on trial may be the ones who should have been considered potential failures in terms of actual achievement. When subjective ratings are eliminated, however, and conclusions are based on objective measurements of the educational growth of children, the evidence cannot be brushed aside lightly. As far as trial promotions are concerned, the data speak for themselves. But the implications are deeper. Have we been justified in our unshaken belief that repetition of a grade was the best preparation a student could get to qualify him for the work of the next higher grade? Does a child actually learn by repeating a grade, and if so, is that learning greater in amount than if he were exposed to the new curriculum of a higher grade? What is the relationship between grade placement and progression from grade to grade and the actual educational growth of children? Would attention to individual needs and adaptation of materials and methods at all stages of progress result in greater ultimate levels of achievement than occasional or frequent repetition of grades? If so, how shall our promotional practices be modified? What are the actual functions or values of failure? Let us turn to some of these issues.

THE VALUES OF FAILURE

The exact functions or values of failure in the elementary grades have never been ascertained. In general, teachers and

administrators have assumed, perhaps as a result of tradition, that non-promotion was an unavoidable evil in school administration. Some educational workers believe firmly that failure should be reduced to a minimum, but they also believe that the threat of failure must be retained to assure maximum application on the part of pupils. Perhaps everyone who bears some responsibility for the failure recorded at the end of each school term believes that certain advantages will accrue for the pupil if he repeats the grade. The points of view of different groups of professional persons on this issue are of interest.

As one phase of an investigation of promotion policies the writer had occasion to interview thirty-eight principals of elementary schools (in a few instances superintendents of elementary-school districts) regarding their beliefs as to the values of failure.³⁹ Twenty-nine per cent of the interviewed principals believed that no desirable values can result from failure. One person expressed the thought that failure in the elementary grades was a tragedy. Others named a variety of values (Table XXXV), the actual existence of many of which

³⁹ The study was made in 1932. In most instances the schools were actually visited and the interviews had in the principals' offices. A few of the principals were interrogated in the writer's office during the 1932 summer session. Except for a few instances, the elementary schools represented by the principals who were interviewed are located in the Chicago area. Four types of grade organization are represented: six-grade schools with and without kindergartens and eight-grade schools with and without kindergartens. The enrollments in the schools ranged from 80 to 2,224. Various analyses which were made showed that size and type of school have little or no relationship to the factors reported herein. Of the thirty-eight schools, eighteen promote annually, the rest semiannually. The percentage of failure ranges from 0 to 10 with a median of 4.5.

The writer wishes to acknowledge the assistance of the Division of Research of the School of Education in granting funds to cover traveling expenses for visitation. An expression of appreciation is also due Miss Ruth M. Rathbun, Principal of the Mayfair School, Chicago, for cooperation in making some of the interviews and in summarizing the data.

is doubtful, and most of which cannot justify the practice of denying progress to many pupils.

TABLE XXXV

THE FUNCTIONS OR VALUES OF FAILURE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
AS REPORTED BY PRINCIPALS

Values of Failure	Number of Principals	Per Cent
1. Assures mastery of subject-matter	13	34
2. Disciplines the lazy child.	11	29
3. No values... ..	11	29
4. Adjusts the immature child	9	24
5. Helps to retrieve the losses due to absence ..	4	11
6. Gives dull child more time.....	3	8
7. Maintains the morale or standard.	1	3

A study made by Adams in 1930 throws some light on the opinions of teachers regarding the values of failure.⁴⁰ Forty-one elementary teachers were requested to submit to the superintendent's office written statements giving explanation and justification for the various percentages of failure in their classes for the first semester of 1929-1930. Although some discrepancy may exist between "reasons for failing pupils" and the "values of failure," there is sufficient community of interest to cast some light on the values of failures as viewed by teachers.

For convenience, the data as analyzed by Adams have been assembled in Table XXXVI. The first group consists of reasons over which teachers have little control. It is evident that reasons of this sort were mentioned ninety-three times and constitute approximately one-third of the total reported. Even though teachers may have little control over these factors, the school is not entirely without control over them,

⁴⁰ W. L. Adams, "Why Teachers Say They Fail Pupils," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 8 (November, 1932), pp. 594-600.

TABLE XXXVI

REASONS GIVEN BY FORTY-ONE TEACHERS FOR FAILING PUPILS

Reasons Given by Teachers	Number Mention- ing	Numbers of Times Mentioned
I. Reasons for failure over which teachers have little control:		
Absence.	21	36
Excessive moving from school to school.	7	22
Poor home conditions	6	11
Other physical defects in sight and hearing.	6	8
Nervous pupils.	2	4
Too many pupils.	3	3
Delayed examinations.	2	3
Inadequate diets	2	2
Temperamental pupils.	2	2
Poor health due to adenoids.	1	1
Epileptic child.	1	1
Total.	—	93
II. Reasons for failure which relate to standards of work:		
Work too difficult for pupils.	17	47
Mentally deficient in teachers' opinion.	16	23
Work below teachers' subjective standard.	16	19
Reading ability low in teachers' opinion.	6	15
Work below teachers' objective standard.	2	3
Reading ability below standardized norms.	1	2
Failure an excuse for reclassification.	1	1
Total.	—	110
III. Reasons for failure relating to the interest of children:		
Pupils lack interests.	14	27
Pupils are careless and indifferent.	10	14
Total.	—	41
Grand total.	—	244

especially with reference to such items as absence, certain physical handicaps, class size, and delayed examinations. Parenthetically it may be noted that pupils too have as little or less control over these factors as teachers or the school.

The second large group of reasons, constituting about 40 per cent of the total listed, relate to standards of work and represent factors over which teachers have a large measure of control. The third group relates to the interest of children and might be considered an extension of the second group of reasons since the responsibility for the development of interest and proper attitudes on the part of children rests largely with the teacher. In the last analysis, it is evident that more than half of the reports of these teachers relate to items which are within the control of teachers and which modern teaching would recognize and adjust so that they would not become the causes of failure. The majority of the remaining items are beyond the control of pupils. Thus there seems to be little justification for inflicting school failure upon pupils on the basis of most of the factors listed by these forty-one teachers.

As suggested previously, reasons for failure need not necessarily imply values of failure. This non-correspondence between "reasons" and "values" may apply to the factors listed in the first group of Table XXXVI but can hardly be as pronounced with reference to the remaining rubrics. It seems clear that when pupils are failed because the work is too difficult, interest lags, or the quality of work is below the accepted standards of the teacher, it is in the hope that repetition of the grade will advance the student so that subsequently he will not be rated deficient. Whether the anticipated results accrue in greater measure from repetition of the grade than they would from exposure to new work remains to be examined.

The reader will note that so far the discussion about the values of failure has dealt with the opinions of teachers and administrators and that in practically all cases these opinions have not been verified by research. It will be interesting to

examine the results of objective studies in this field. Doubtless the criterion for judgment should be the educational growth and welfare of children. Studies such as the one by McKinney have shown repeatedly that about 75 per cent of potential failures, if promoted to the next higher grade and given a reasonable amount of consideration and individual attention, will not only sustain themselves in the new grade but that more than 50 per cent of them will receive unconditional promotions at the end of the succeeding term. More convincing data are those reported by Klene and Branson which demonstrate that the educational growth of children, as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test, is greater if potential failures are promoted on trial than if they repeat the grade. The evidence, although it may be somewhat meager at present and may need further substantiation, suggests that school failure does not have the beneficent values which have been claimed for it, and that appropriate diagnostic and remedial methods which result in a fuller recognition of individual differences may be, not only a more desirable, but a more valuable substitute.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES RELATIVE TO PUPIL PROMOTION

To aid in the solution of promotion problems and in the standardization of practices within a city, some school systems, through committee action, have formulated lists of general principles which might guide and govern promotional practices. In the preparation of the *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, the Committee, with the assistance of selected groups of teachers, principals, supervisors, and assistant superintendents in Baltimore and Colorado Springs, prepared a tentative statement of general principles relative to pupil promotion.⁴¹ In outline form it is as follows:

⁴¹ *Op. cit.*, pp. 18-22.

A. Promotion should be decided on the basis of the individual pupil.

B. Promotion should be on the basis of many factors. The final decision as to whether a particular pupil should be promoted should rest not merely on academic accomplishment, but on what will result in the greatest good to the all-around development of the individual.

C. In order that promotion procedures may be more or less uniform throughout a particular school system, a definite set of factors should be agreed upon, which each teacher will take into consideration in forming his judgment as to whether or not a particular pupil should be promoted.

D. Criteria for promotion must take into consideration the curriculum offerings of the next higher grade or unit and the flexibility of its organization, its courses of study, and its methods.

E. It is the duty of the next higher grade or unit to accept pupils who are properly promoted to it from the lower grade or unit and to adapt its work to fit the needs of these pupils.

F. Promotion procedures demand continuous analysis and study of cumulative pupil case-history records in order that refinement of procedure may result and guesswork and conjecture be reduced to a minimum.

The Committee pointed out that promotion cannot be settled on the basis of one of the principles alone—the six must be taken as a whole. All the individuals who coöperated in the preparation of the above formulation did not ascribe to each of the principles. In fact, many diverse viewpoints were registered. Many of these were presented, along with the principles, in the hope that they would form the basis for discussion and would serve as a starting point from which local school systems might develop general principles applicable to their local situations. The writer takes this opportunity to posit his reactions to the proposals.

There can be little doubt of the merit that results from the formulation and adoption of general principles which shall guide the promotional practices in a school system. Sound policies regarding pupil promotion are sadly needed and are particularly desirable in view of the uncertain and questionable status of promotional practices in many schools, as must have been evident throughout the above discussion. One may

raise certain questions, however, regarding the six principles listed above. No doubt it is desirable that promotion should be decided on the basis of the individual pupil, but whether such practice is feasible, even if a variety of factors in addition to academic accomplishment are taken into consideration, will depend upon the application of the principle. Teachers for several decades now have struggled in an endeavor to give consideration to such factors as home background, mental ability, health, emotional stability, character traits, interest, application, etc., as well as scholarship attainment, and the evidence seems to be convincing that promotional practices even to-day are in a confused and unwholesome state. Teachers' judgments regarding most of these many factors must necessarily be subjective. The exact relationship between many of these items and child development is not known. In the absence of exact knowledge and objective methods of rating, each teacher will place emphasis on any one of the factors according to her best judgment. Sincere as these judgments may be, they will probably be as variable from teacher to teacher as teachers' marks on themes or arithmetic papers have been demonstrated to be. The multiplicity of items to be considered does not lend clarity to the situation. Until more knowledge is available regarding the relation of each or all factors which might be named, including academic achievements, to the educational development of children—that is, the progress of pupils toward the attainment of the accepted goals of elementary education—it is not likely that pupil promotion will be placed on a scientific basis.

Item *D* in the above list of principles also evokes comment. The implication that pupil progress in school is to be dependent upon the curricular prescriptions of succeeding grades can hardly be justified. For decades the cry has been heard that the school is a formalized institution, rigid in its standards, and relentless in its dealings with children. The sophisticated atmosphere of the school in which revered subjects are taught by scholarly and consecrated teachers who uphold high

standards, who pride themselves upon the large numbers who fail each term, and who find it quite unthinkable to vary their program of instruction, has long been criticized. The interesting feature is that *fixed curriculum content prescribed for specific grades* is one of the things which makes schools formalized and results in heavy pupil mortality. Unless there is brought forth a willingness to adjust curriculum as well as method, it is unlikely that much progress will be made in the recognition of individual differences and the improvement of promotion practices. There is nothing particularly sacred about the allocation of a given unit of content to a specific grade, nor is the grade in which a particular unit is taught particularly significant. The mental development of the child is a more important consideration.

A PROPOSED PROMOTION PLAN

There can be little doubt about the fact that the question of promotion constitutes one of the most important phases of elementary-school administration. Yet, at every turn, one encounters a preponderance of evidence to show an absence of well formulated policies, variations in practice, and confusion of thought as to desirable solutions. Perhaps uniformity of practice for all schools or all parts of the country is not desirable, but neither is the present confusion and the almost total absence of sound, scientifically determined principles a wholesome situation. In endeavors to remedy dissatisfactions with current practices schools have tried a variety of measures. A number of these have been discussed in the above paragraphs. At each point, however, criticisms were offered and attention was called to the shortcomings of each plan as a satisfactory solution to the issues involved. Unfortunately there is little evidence to suggest the way out. Consequently, to propose a promotion plan which does not carry the earmarks of practical application or scientific evaluation may seem presumptuous. Yet it would seem desirable to offer some

constructive measure which, if not acceptable in its entirety, will at least stimulate thought. It is with this in mind that the following proposal is made.

In Chapter V it was suggested that children be classified on the basis of social maturity. In order that such a classification policy may be carried out consistently, it is essential that all children be promoted regularly and periodically so that each child will be placed at all times in class groups which are relatively homogeneous from the viewpoint of social maturity. Except for unusual cases or unusual circumstances, this policy calls for 100 per cent promotion throughout the elementary school. To make this program more feasible, it is recommended that the term "school grade" be abandoned and that children be designated as spending their "first year" (kindergarten), "second year," or "seventh year" in the elementary school. After a child has spent his seven years in the elementary school (the period now covered by the kindergarten and Grades 1 through 6) and has reached the age of twelve years or twelve years and six months he transfers to the secondary school. In this way pupil progress will be regular and continuous and children will not be denied the broadening and enriching influences of the junior high school because of failure and retardation in the elementary school. It will be necessary for secondary schools to modify their programs so that they can provide adequately for *all* children who have completed their sojourn in the elementary schools. The secondary unit will achieve democratic secondary education to a larger degree than it now does.

This promotion plan has been formulated in the firm belief that one of the major purposes of the elementary school is to provide a wholesome environment in which children may grow up. The aim at all times should be to provide class groups in which children of about the same age and maturity will participate extensively and in a wholesome fashion in activities through which it is hoped the aims of elementary education will be attained. At no time should any child be placed in

a situation which will cause him to develop defense mechanisms or undesirable character and personality traits. This concept of promotion does not preclude ability grouping within each of the social groups.

Such data as have been assembled suggest that failure in school serves no useful values; in fact, the educational growth of children is less when they repeat grades than when they are promoted to new work. To argue that the threat of failure is essential to obtain maximum application on the part of children is an acknowledgment of inefficient teaching and inadequate understanding of children. If children are properly motivated, they will work to capacity. Achievement below capacity usually suggests maladjustment of some sort, which should become a challenge to the teacher. If instruction is really adapted to individual differences in children, school failure is an anachronism. A promotion rate of 100 per cent is not likely to produce class groups whose variations in academic achievements are larger than those found in classes as now organized (see Ch. I). Hence the problems and difficulties of teaching will not be increased materially. All types of standardized mental and achievement tests will find extensive use as teaching aids, enabling the teacher to ascertain pupil abilities, pupil attainments, and pupil difficulties and deficiencies in an effort to provide for each child that education which is best suited to his interests and abilities. School marks as now conceived may well be discarded and in their place will be ratings of "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory," depending upon whether a child is achieving according to his ability. Any unsatisfactory report will indicate maladjustment of some sort and suggest the need for the home and the school to coöperate in an endeavor to secure again a well adjusted individual. The satisfactory development of desirable personality and character traits as well as academic knowledge and skills will be the teacher's concern.

REPORT CARDS

The report card is the most commonly used means of informing parents of their children's standing and progress in school work. The report card is accepted as an administrative device to serve the double purpose of informing the home of pupil achievement and of acting as a record for both the home and the school. In a recent study by the Office of Education a sampling of 20 per cent of 628 report cards used in 515 city school systems was carefully analyzed to obtain a cross-section of present practice in the content of report forms. Of the 628 cards received by the Office of Education, 419 were designed for use in all the elementary grades, 49 for the kindergarten, 16 for the kindergarten-primary grades, 100 for the primary grades, and 44 for the upper-elementary grades.⁴² A sampling of 20 per cent of the general elementary cards provided eighty-four cards for detailed analysis. The frequency of occurrence on these cards of the various subjects is as follows:

History and civics; United States history; local state history; citizenship; civics; civil government; social studies; social science; current events; United States Constitution	120*
Language; English; oral English; written English; oral language; composition; form of written composition; content of written composition; written language; grammar; literature; rhetorical; expression; memory selections; language-writing-spelling	117
Reading; oral reading; silent reading; reading for thought; reading and literature; word study; phonics	90
Arithmetic; oral arithmetic; mental arithmetic; written arithmetic; arithmetic processes; reasoning in arithmetic; formal arithmetic; mathematics; number; algebra	85

* On the 84 cards included in this subject-matter analysis, a number used more than one term on a single card. This accounts for the fact that the first four subjects show a numerical count of more than 84.

⁴² Rowna Hansen, *Report Cards for Kindergarten and Elementary Grades*, United States Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Leaflet No. 41* (1931), p. 2.

Spelling; spelling in composition; spelling and orthography; orthography	81
Writing; handwriting; penmanship	80
Geography; physical geography	77
Drawing; art; fine and industrial arts; industrial arts; hand- work; picture study	75
Music; band; orchestra	72
Physiology; hygiene; science and hygiene; hygiene and health; sanitation	68
Domestic science; home economics; household arts; domestic arts; clothing; sewing; food; cooking	37
Manual training; manual arts; industrial; industrial work; handcraft; shop	37
Nature study; general science; science; nature work; natural science	28
Agriculture; agriculture-nature study; agriculture-physiology .	17
Health education; health; health work; health instruction; health habits; cleanliness; care of teeth; training for healthful living	14
Morals and manners; religious instruction; citizenship or morals and manners	4
Bookkeeping	2
Activity period	1
Supervised play	1
Latin	1
Auditorium	1

Generally reports to parents are not confined to ratings on subjects of instruction. Increasing significance is being attached to the importance of attitudes and behavior in relation to learning and in relation to social adjustments. One-fifth of the cards issued for use throughout the elementary grades report attitudes and behavior by using the one term "conduct" or "deportment." One-sixth supplement the use of conduct or deportment by one of the following terms: application, interest, punctuality, habits of study, diligence, effort, industry. One-fourth of the cards report school behaviors by listing many negative qualities, a few positive qualities, or both. On the next page is a summary of the specific items listed:

POSITIVE		NEGATIVE	
Courteous	13	Careless	9
Coöperative	12	Inattentive	6
Responsible	11	Indolent (including lazy)	6
Industrious	9	Wasteful	6
Thrifty	7	Discourteous	4
Orderly	6	Annoys others	4
Attentive	6	Lacking in coöperation	3
Self-control	6	Lacking in initiative	3
Resourceful	5	Mischievous	2
Persuading	5	Lacking in perseverance	2
Prompt	5	Too impulsive	1
Effort	5	Dependent	1
Obedient	5	Indifferent	1
Sportsmanship	4	Lacking self-control	1
Initiative	3	Irresponsible	1
Honest	3	Lacking in leadership	1
Conscientious	3	Talks too much	1
Commendable attitude	3		—
Application	2	Total	52
Accurate	2		
Interested	2		
Independent	1		
Enthusiastic	1		
Courageous	1		
Respectful	1		
Considerate	1		
Concentration	1		
Speed	1		
Observation	1		
Total	125		

Although a certain amount of uniformity of the cards within a single school system is desirable, it is not to be expected that there would be rigid uniformity among school systems throughout the country. It is essential however that the card express the objectives of the school program and rate pupil progress in a manner which conforms to the policies of the school and which conveys to the parent the relationship of the child to the desired goals. As Miss Hanson points out, "Recently constructed curricula treat subject-matter as a tool

and the child himself as the center of concern. While standards of educational achievements have been changing, as reflected in recently constructed curricula and in teaching methods, the report card seems to have retained the more traditional idea of education. This traditional procedure is shown by the marking of subjects separately and by regarding a child's behaviors as a unit and of evaluating them under one term such as 'conduct' or 'deportment' rather than regarding specific instances of individual behavior in relation to specific situations."⁴³ Of the entire group of general elementary cards analyzed, the ratio is approximately four to one in favor of the traditional type of card. Methods of rating are distributed as follows: the *A, B, C, D* method was found used in 46 per cent of the cases; Excellent, Good, Medium, Poor, Failing, 24.6 per cent; 100, 90, 80, 15 per cent; Satisfactory and Unsatisfactory, 2.38 per cent; not indicated, 8.73 per cent.

In view of the classification plans which have been recommended in the present chapters, it would seem logical to make a few suggestions regarding the content of report cards. If instruction is adapted to individual differences and each pupil is judged according to his ability, progress might be reported to parents in terms of levels of attainment or as satisfactory or unsatisfactory, the latter being used if achievement falls short of mental ability. Any unsatisfactory record suggests maladjustment which should command the immediate coöperation of parents and teacher. Desirable traits of group and individual behavior could be listed and rated in a similar fashion. The report form shown in Figure 10 illustrates the general plan.⁴⁴ The complete card is a four-page folder containing additional pages on which the teacher comments at length regarding the child's school life, pointing out unique interests or abilities as well as weak points which need strengthening through teacher and parent coöperation. The

⁴³ *Ibid.*, pp. 1-2.

⁴⁴ Courtesy of the superintendent of schools, Willmette, Illinois.

card is issued but four times a year and constitutes a confidential, personal letter from the teacher to the parent.

Wilmette Public School		CURRICULUM	
Report of _____		These subjects are marked in the same way as the habits on the previous page	
Grade _____ 1932-1933			
School _____			
PROGRESS IN HABITS AND ATTITUDES			
OBJECTIVES AS AN INDIVIDUAL		QUARTERS	
1. Uses time to advantage	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
2. Listens attentively	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
3. Follows directions accurately	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
4. Shows initiative	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
5. Works independently	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
OBJECTIVES OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP			
1. Makes worthwhile contributions	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
2. Shows courtesy to classmates and leaders	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
3. Takes and gives criticism profitably	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
4. Works without disturbing others	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>		
<p>The pupil is not marked on an objective unless he is exceptional one way or the other. If he excels, the objective is marked (+). If he is in much need of improvement, the objective is marked (-). No mark means satisfactory.</p>			
		SOCIAL SCIENCE 1. Comprehension of subject material <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Organizing ability	
		3. Oral presentation	
		4. Test results	
		5. Project work	
		ENGLISH GRAMMAR 1. Technical grammar	
		2. Use of correct English	
		COMPOSITION 1. Oral and written expression	
		2. Form of written work	
		LITERATURE 1. Reading comprehension	
		2. Creative activities	
		SPELLING 1. Record of weekly tests	
		2. Spelling in context	
		WRITING	
		MATHEMATICS 1. Skill in fundamentals	
		2. Reasoning ability	
		GENERAL SCIENCE 1. Comprehension scientific principles	
		2. Project work	
		FINE AND APPLIED ARTS Music	
		Art	
		Home Economics or Industrial Arts	
		PHYSICAL TRAINING	
		ATTENDANCE Half days absent	
		Times tardy	

FIG. 10. FRONT AND REVERSE SIDE OF REPORT CARD USED IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF WILMETTE, ILLINOIS.

Courtesy of superintendent of schools.

THE PRINCIPAL'S RELATION TO PROMOTION PROBLEMS

In the discussion of any crucial and controversial problem of education, each type of professional worker is interested in ascertaining his responsibilities and relationships to the issue at stake. It therefore seems pertinent to inquire about the relationships of the principal to the question of pupil promotion. Perhaps the exact duties and responsibilities of the ele-

mentary principal in this regard have never been clearly formulated, yet, as with other phases of education, various practices have grown up in the different schools. In an endeavor to get some index of current practice as it relates to the administrative control of pupil promotion, the writer interviewed thirty-eight principals of elementary schools during the spring and summer of 1932.⁴⁵

When asked about their control over promotions, all but one of the principals said that they influence, exercise control over, supervise, or assist classroom teachers in deciding upon who shall or shall not be promoted at the end of the semester or year. Invariably principals state that they function as "consulting experts." Usually this administrative or supervisory function of the principal is called into action only with reference to cases about which the teacher has some doubt. Whenever a doubtful case is brought to the attention of the principal, 26 per cent of the principals then assume sole responsibility and determine the promotion on the basis of the teacher's marks, supervisory tests, or particular circumstances requiring the adjustment of the particular case. Seventy-four per cent of the principals assume the rôle of expert adviser and coöperate with the classroom teachers in disposing of the cases. Frequently teachers' judgments are verified by objective tests.

Various methods are used in the different schools to enable principals to keep in touch with the most difficult or the most puzzling cases. In six of the schools doubtful cases are reported to the principal early in the term and the teacher and principal coöperate in an endeavor to avert failure. As a part of the program to avert failure parents are informed and their coöperation solicited. Two principals reported that they make it a practice to confer constantly with teachers regarding slow

⁴⁵ The following discussion is summarized from H. J. Otto, "Administrative Control of Pupil Promotion in Elementary Schools," *Educational Trends: A Journal of Research and Interpretation*, Vol. 2, No. 1 (January, 1933), pp. 28-33.

pupils. One principal checks systematically the marks of *all* pupils each time the report cards are issued. In a few schools teachers' meetings are held at regular intervals to discuss all potential failures. In some instances doubtful cases are reported to the principal who then gives diagnostic tests. In one or two schools diagnostic tests are used extensively to ascertain the difficulties of reported pupils. In a few schools the remedial teaching is done by the principal. In one school all failures must be approved by the principal before the report cards are issued at the end of the term. One principal requests each teacher to set forth her reasons for proposing to fail a given child. In one school the teachers must report all prospective failures to the principal who then makes an extensive investigation with the aid of tests, teachers' judgments, and parent coöperation to make sure that no pupil is failed unless they feel sure that repetition of the grade will benefit his total educational growth and his progress toward the citizenship objective of the school.

In spite of the fact that responsibility for the promotion of the majority of pupils (all except doubtful cases) rests with classroom teachers, it was quite evident throughout the interviews that principals feel that they control in no small measure the promotional policies and practices in their own schools. The supervisory capacity in which they act and the activities in which they participate to determine the disposition to be made of doubtful cases substantiates their own attitudes regarding their control of this phase of elementary-school administration. Perhaps the feeling of centralized authority regarding promotion has developed as a copartner to the responsibility for promotion and failure in his own school which the principal has been forced to assume, partially because of his increasing importance as a line officer in the administration of public schools.

In view of the control which principals have over promotions it seemed pertinent to ask what general policies or theories they hold regarding non-promotion and which they

use as a guide in the exercise of their authority. All were asked, "Do you as principal have a general policy or theory regarding failure and non-promotion which you convey to teachers through teachers' meetings or bulletins and which you expect teachers to bear in mind and to follow as far as possible in deciding upon promotions at the end of the term?" All replied in the affirmative and then proceeded to explain their policies. Their statements may be summarized as follows:

1. Sixteen per cent of the thirty-eight principals believe that subject-matter standards should prevail. Some principals interpreted this to mean an average of 75 per cent as measured by teachers' marks, others said that they retain a pupil if he fails in two subjects, while still others said that they pass a pupil after he has spent two years in the grade.

2. Twenty-six per cent believe that 100 per cent promotion is desirable and feasible.

3. Forty-four per cent believe that the adjustment of the individual child should be made the aim. Explanatory comments such as the following were made: "Promote him if he can get more out of the next grade's work," "Promotion should mean the best adjustment of the individual pupil," and "Adjust according to social age."

4. Eleven per cent believe that promotion should be made on the basis of effort—"He who works passes."

5. Three per cent believed that rigid standards should be applied in the primary grades so that there will be no need for subsequent failures.

Some readers may be alarmed over the fact that only 16 per cent of the principals expressed adherence to rigid subject-matter standards. Rather than being alarmed over the above facts, the writer is pleased to note that 26 per cent of the principals expressed a belief that 100 per cent promotion was desirable and feasible (even though 100 per cent promotion was found in only one school); and that 44 per cent of the principals believe that the individual adjustment of each child should be the aim. One also notes in item 4 an endeavor to relate criteria for promotion to the ability of pupils.

Inquiry was also made regarding any special policies, in addition to the general theories described above, at specific points or grade levels or with reference to particular types of pupils. The replies indicated that promotion from kindergarten to Grade 1B is invariably made on the basis of chronological age. Promotion from Grade 1 to Grade 2 is made on the basis of academic achievement in over 75 per cent of the schools. These findings are very similar to those reported by other studies. No doubt the shift in the basis for promotion from chronological age to academic achievements is partly responsible for the large percentages of failure found in the primary grades of some schools. Thirty-four of the thirty-eight principals stated that promotion from the elementary to the secondary school was decided almost entirely upon the satisfactory completion of the curricular requirements for the last grade of the elementary school. No significant differences were noted between the six-year and the eight-year schools in the emphasis placed upon subject-matter attainments as the basis for admission to the secondary unit. In only three schools was graduation from the elementary school based upon chronological or social age. In one eight-grade school, graduation from the eighth grade was determined by the score a pupil obtained on the Stanford Achievement Test.

Special policies regarding the promotion of bright and dull pupils were of about the same type, variety, and frequency as reported by other studies. In 74 per cent of the schools special efforts are made through acceleration, extra assignments, requiring a higher standard of work, differentiated assignments, and ability grouping to provide for the superior abilities of bright pupils.

For all but two of the thirty-eight schools, principals report special policies regarding the promotion of dull pupils. More time allowed on units of work, adjustment of tasks to the ability of the pupil, opportunity rooms, special coaching by teacher or principal, differentiated curricula, and ability grouping appear to be the prevailing devices for the reduc-

tion of failure among the less able students. It was quite apparent that the slow children present problems which are the major concern of teachers and principals and that more instructional effort is spent in an endeavor to get the slow pupil to attain acceptable standards of achievement than in endeavors to make the superior pupil achieve in accordance with his ability.

In spite of the forward-looking theories and policies expressed by principals and the multitude of earnest endeavors made by teachers and principals to solve the many baffling problems associated with pupil promotion, there seems to be wide disagreement, in fact almost apparent chaos, regarding current practices and desirable solutions. A median percentage of failure of 4.5 in representative modern schools suggests that practice lags behind theory and that these principals are not succeeding in the administration of promotion as they desire, if their theories regarding non-promotion may be taken as a criterion. Doubtless the disparity between the desired objective and actual practice is due to a variety of causes. The absence of sound, well-formulated policies, and of procedures for their application, add to the confusion. Rigid adherence to subject-matter standards as a basis for promotion is giving way to a variety of factors pertaining to other phases of child life and ability which suggest the recognition of individual differences, yet there are no clearly formulated principles as to how this array of items is to be applied. It is generally agreed that cumulative records, case histories, home visits by teachers, attitude ratings, and mental- and achievement-test scores are invaluable aids to teaching, but just how they are to be used in determining promotion or failure is not clear. To coördinate a poor home background or poor attitude on the part of a pupil with the course-of-study requirements is not an easy task.

Since principals do have this strategic relationship to promotion problems they must accept large responsibility for promotion policies and their results. It devolves upon them

to formulate sound philosophies which may serve as guides in the administration of promotion policies. Although many of the principals seem to have formulated in their own thinking certain plans regarding promotion, they seem not to have succeeded in shaping those policies in a clear-cut fashion or to have worked out procedures through which the policies may find expression. Pupil promotion, including nearly all of its related aspects, is in a decidedly confused condition. At present there is little agreement in theory, and even less in practice, as to how promotions shall be administered. Disagreement and open-mindedness are wholesome only when such disagreement can lead to carefully examined solutions.

From a supervisory viewpoint there are many activities of the principal which have a direct bearing on the administration of promotion plans. Assistance given teachers in interpreting and applying a course of study, in the selecting, using, and interpreting of appropriate mental and educational tests, in selecting instructional materials, in developing a philosophy of education, in making case studies of exceptional children, etc., has direct bearing upon the promotional practices of a school. This relationship should be clearly recognized so that all aspects of administration may be properly coördinated.

THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO PUPIL PROGRESS

Although the administrative control of pupil promotion seems to rest with the principal, the teacher also has strategic relationships which both the teacher and the principal should recognize. As shown by the interview study referred to above, as well as by other investigations,⁴⁶ the teacher has direct charge of the promotion from grade to grade of the large majority of pupils. It is largely the classroom teacher who interprets established standards or formulates her own stand-

⁴⁶ Mary M. Reed, *An Investigation of Practices in First-Grade Admission and Promotion*, Contributions to Education, No. 290 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927), p. 17.

ards of achievement on the basis of which she evaluates the accomplishments of children. Usually it is the teacher who prepares, administers, and scores the informal classroom tests which represent her interpretation of the accepted curriculum. It is thus the classroom teacher who must assume much responsibility for pupil progress, particularly as it relates to the age-grade and the grade-progress status of children in a school system.

The teacher also has unique relationships with reference to the educational growth and progress of pupils as distinct from grade progress. In the last analysis, the educational experiences which children have in school are controlled largely by the classroom teacher. It is she who makes the most frequent and the most immediate contacts with children. The interpretation and application of the curriculum, the adaptation of instruction to individual differences, the provision of curricular enrichments for superior pupils, the diagnosis of pupil difficulties, the use of remedial measures, the selection and use of mental and achievement tests, and the selection of instructional materials are phases of teaching to which, either directly or indirectly, the teacher can give direction and guidance. It is the teacher who must give an intelligent application of the educational principles chosen to guide the activities which, it is hoped, will result in the attainment by the pupil of the desired knowledges, attitudes, habits, and skills.

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CHAPTER VII

ORGANIZATION OF THE PROGRAM FOR INSTRUCTION

The educational program of a city, or other political unit, is administered to children through a series of local units or schools within its boundaries. The effectiveness of such a program will depend in large measure upon the extent to which the instructional program of each separate school is organized so that the educational program of the city may be properly administered in the classrooms. After all, the administrative policies are effective only to the degree that those actually working with the children manifest in their attitudes, speech, and activities the educational theories which it is hoped will permeate the system. Consequently, practically all aspects of administration, such as providing plant facilities, selection, assignment, and in-service training of teachers, organization for supervision, providing equipment and supplies, curriculum construction, and organization of the program for teaching, must be planned and carried out in view of the educational program that has been adopted.¹

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM AND THE LOCAL SCHOOL

Since the educational program of a district is administered through the local school units, each building with its allied facilities must fit into the scheme as a whole and be an essential cog in the wheel. Each educational unit provides for chil-

¹For a more extensive discussion of educational organization, see Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Organization and Administration* (Ginn and Co., 1931), Ch. vi.

dren of certain types and of given ages and is assumed to render to its enrolled pupils certain values toward the attainment of the objectives of public education. For the elementary school, the aims and functions have been treated in Chapter II. Obviously the interpretation of the objectives and the manner in which they shall be attained differs, sometimes markedly, from system to system or even from school to school within the same system. However, if the educational program which has been adopted is to be executed effectively within the local school units, it is essential that the program for instruction be arranged to facilitate the achievement of the outcomes which are sought.

During the present century² many changes have taken place in educational theory as well as in practice.³ The policies and theories which are basic to the establishment and execution of an educational program have been altered materially in some systems. Some districts, which had no clearly defined principles of educational procedure, have developed clear-cut

² "Within the past twenty-five years much has been done to enrich the conception of the aims of elementary education. It is now coming to be generally accepted that the function of the elementary schools is not merely to give pupils possession of the tools of learning—the three R's—but to provide the content necessary to a common basis of national life. Consequently, great enrichment of materials is offered in the elementary school." C. L. Robbins, "Elementary Education," in I. L. Kandel, *Twenty-Five Years of American Education* (The Macmillan Co., 1929), p. 244.

³ "The shift of values which has taken place is most evident when one considers how radically different from views formerly held are the present views in regard to the place of the child in the educative process. Time was when the pupil was regarded as the passive, inert material on which education acts, the blank sheet of paper on which the precious messages of the past were to be written by the teacher, the plastic clay which the teacher was to mold to a predetermined form. Today we know the child is a dynamic, aggressive factor in the educational process, the *vital, central* factor, whose nature and reactions are determined by natural laws, the operation of which is beyond our power to alter." Helen Miller, S. A. Courtis, and Garnette Walters, *Creative Teaching in the Field of Spelling* (Des Moines, Iowa, Wallace Publishing Co., 1931), p. 1.

policies and programs.⁴ In some schools group instruction has been partially eliminated to provide for individual-pupil progress in tool subjects. The unit type of organization of curricular materials has found its way into some schools to effect more purposeful teaching and learning,⁵ whereas other systems have swung completely to an activity curriculum. Firm belief in the advantages to be gained from classification of pupils according to abilities or deficiencies has led many cities to adopt policies which call for extensive classification of children, differentiated curricula, and special classes and schools. Certain districts have adopted a policy of 100 per cent promotion. Since pupil abilities and rates of achievement differ widely, the latter policy entails immediate obligations upon the organization of a school. Classification of pupils for instructional purposes, selection of materials and text books, providing time and teaching personnel for needed remedial instruction, the supervision of instruction, as well as other aspects of organization and administration must be shaped so the educational policies may be applied effectively in classroom instruction and allied activities. The schedule of activities for the day or week must be organized so the various types of school work will receive emphasis according to their relative values; so that external requirements which govern in part the work of the school, and teaching and supervisory relations with other units in the city, are properly met; and so the plans for teaching the various phases of the curriculum may be facilitated rather than hampered.

TIME ALLOTMENTS

In school work, as in other lines of endeavor, the amount of time available for a given activity determines to a large

⁴ F. G. Pickell, *Progressive Education Policies*, Report for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1928 (Board of Education, Montclair, N. J.).

The Public School Code of the Hamtramck, Michigan, Public Schools (Board of Education, Hamtramck, Michigan, 1927).

⁵ R. W. Bardwell, *Seventy-Sixth Annual Report of the Public Schools* (Madison, Wisconsin, 1931), p. 6.

extent what may be legitimately undertaken with profit. The indifferent manner with which time allotments are viewed by some principals suggests that the full significance of the importance of proper administration of the time schedule is not realized by many school executives. It is only after a careful consideration of the relative importance of the various objectives of elementary education and the relationship of the different school activities to these objectives, as well as the principles underlying the teaching and learning of various phases of the curriculum that one can approach scientifically the topic of time distribution. It is not any easy task to determine for a local school how the school time shall be distributed so that all desirable activities may be allocated their proper places in a school program.

An extensive study of time allotments, made by Mann in 1926, shows surprising lack of agreement (Table XXXVII) among public schools as to the amount of time to be devoted to the different subjects. No doubt the disagreement is due in part to differences in the organization of the curriculum, in the nature of the student population served, in methods of teaching, as well as to the uncertain status of what subjects and activities are essential to the attainment of the aims and functions of elementary education. Even with respect to such subjects as penmanship and spelling, Mann found extensive variations in the total time allotted. These subjects were selected for special study because they are subjects concerning which there seems to be the greatest agreement among specialists in the respective fields relative to the specific objectives to be attained, the methods of instruction to be employed, and the amount of time required to secure the necessary knowledge and skills involved.⁶ Consequently, rather close agreement in time allotment, both in total time and in grade-to-grade distribution, might reasonably be expected for

⁶ C. H. Mann, *How Schools Use Their Time*, Contributions to Education, No. 333 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), pp. 144-145.

TABLE XXXVII

TOTAL NUMBER OF MINUTES PER WEEK ALLOTTED TO VARIOUS SUBJECTS
IN GRADES 1-6 IN 444 CITIES, 1926 *

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF CITIES WHICH REPORT SUBJECT	MINUTES PER WEEK, GRADES 1-6 INCLUSIVE			PER CENT OF TOTAL TIME
		Minimum	Median	Maximum	
Reading	443	240	1,376	2,825	17.1
Phonics	318	20	202	715	1.6
Literature	203	10	291	1,090	1.7
Arithmetic	411	405	1,076	1,797	11.6
Language and Grammar	144	200	825	2,825	9.1
Penmanship	444	75	491	900	5.3
Spelling	441	25	490	1,200	5.3
Geography	435	200	531	1,070	5.8
History	418	42	324	960	3.4
Citizenship and Civics	233	7	151	750	1.0
Nature Study and Ele- mentary Science. . .	296	5	160	720	1.3
Art and Drawing . . .	428	23	453	1,095	4.7
Music	429	50	498	900	3.1
Household and Manual Arts	156	25	147	1,035	0.7
Handwork	198	10	172	830	0.9
Physical Training . . .	403	25	513	1,650	5.3
Health Education . . .	394	25	254	1,050	2.7

* Summarized from C. H. Mann, *How Schools Use Their Time*, Contributions to Education, No. 333 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), Ch. v.

penmanship and spelling. Such, however, was not found to be the case. In penmanship, for example, one city begins instruction in the low first grade, where it allots thirty minutes per day to formal practice in writing, and continues this allotment in the high first grade, after which it is reduced to fifteen minutes per day in the remaining elementary grades. Another city, on the other hand, omits penmanship in the low first grade, gives ten minutes per day to it in the high first grade and throughout the second grade, fifteen minutes per day in Grade 3, and then makes a drive for high attainment in Grades 4 through 6 by devoting thirty minutes a day to practice in penmanship. Similar disagreements were found for spelling. Mann concludes this portion of his study as follows:

It seems evident from the differences in time allotment practice by individual cities . . . and from facts reported elsewhere in this study, that many superintendents are unfamiliar with the findings of scientific investigations in the fields of penmanship and spelling, or if familiar with them, have been unwilling or unable for some reason to change the practice of their schools to conform to these findings. The typical differences in allotment curves, which have been graphically portrayed for spelling and penmanship, might as readily be reproduced for all subjects of the elementary curriculum, in many of which the variation would be even greater than in the case of either spelling or penmanship. The lack of standards in time allotment practice, either for total time, or for grade-to-grade distribution, is strikingly apparent for all elementary subjects. And even where standards have been determined by scientific study the failure of cities to readjust their time schedules in order to meet these findings is marked.⁷

TIME DISTRIBUTION AND THE CHANGING CURRICULUM

Changes in the social and economic life of the nation and in the concepts regarding the aims and functions of elementary education have aided in bringing about curricular changes which have important relations to time allotments. Changing demands upon the school curriculum have usually resulted in the addition of new subjects without a corresponding reduction of activities which had already been a part of the school program.⁸ Many of the additions to the curriculum have been the result of specific legislative enactments of the states (Tables XXXVIII and XXXIX). But regardless of the source, each new subject or activity has had to be provided

⁷ C. H. Mann, *op. cit.*, p. 147.

⁸ "In the study of the evolution of the elementary-school curriculum in California, Cralle found that sixteen subjects were required by legislative enactment in 1851, that thirty-one requirements were in force in 1921, and that during the period included in his study, 1851-1925, fifty-three subjects or topics had been added to the curriculum by law and that twenty-two had been withdrawn." *Current Practices in the Construction of State Courses of Study*, Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 4, p. 2.

for in the school program.⁹ Although some items are included in what is termed extracurricular activities, they make fre-

TABLE XXXVIII
SUBJECTS REQUIRED BY LEGISLATIVE AUTHORITY *

Subjects	Number of States	Subjects	Number of States
Agriculture.....	14	Language.....	11
Algebra.....	3	Literature.....	2
Arithmetic.....	36	Manual training.....	7
Bible.....	13	Morals.....	20
Citizenship.....	26	Music.....	9
Civil government.....	22	Nature of alcoholic drinks.....	48
Composition.....	12	Physiology and hygiene.....	38
Constitution.....	37	Physical training.....	29
Domestic science.....	7	Preservation of birds and game.....	2
Drawing.....	13	Prevention of communicable disease.....	12
Elementary science.....	4	Reading.....	36
Forestry.....	1	Safety.....	4
Geography.....	35	Spanish.....	1
Grammar.....	32	Spelling.....	34
Health.....	17	Thrift.....	5
History (State).....	22	Writing.....	34
History (United States).....	38		
Humane treatment of animals.....	20		
Hygiene and sanitation.....	4	Total.....	648
Industrial work.....	2		

* Summarised from *Current Practices in the Construction of State Courses of Study*, op. cit., pp. 5-6.

⁹ "Perhaps the most vital and pressing question regarding the elementary curriculum of city schools in America is the cry arising from teachers and parents that the curriculum is overcrowded. The complaint indicates that too much is being attempted to insure successful work on the part of teacher or pupils. Confusion of mind, divided attention and nervous strain are results following overcrowding. It has been shown on previous pages that the great increase in the number of subjects of instruction and more especially the increased number of topics in the syllabi prescribed by the American school authorities may be largely responsible for this complaint." B. R. Payne, *Public Elementary School Curricula* (Silver, Burdett and Co., 1905), p. 187.

TABLE XXXIX

ACTIVITIES REQUIRED IN THE VARIOUS STATES BY
LEGISLATIVE AUTHORITY *

Activities	Number of States
Arbor day.....	26
Bird day.....	8
Dental inspection.....	3
Display of flag.....	39
Fire drill.....	23
Library.....	1
Medical inspection.....	26
Playgrounds.....	2
Prominent birthdays.....	31
Temperance day.....	18
Total.....	177

* Summarized from *Current Practices in the Construction of State Courses of Study*, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

quent encroachments upon school time (Table XL). The desirability of such infringements upon the scheduled program will depend largely upon the intrinsic educational value of the activity.

Without question, the changing demands upon the curriculum have caused alterations in the relative proportion of school time devoted to the various phases of the educational program. Perhaps improvements in methods of teaching the tool subjects make it possible to give as thorough instruction in these subjects even though the total time devoted to them is less.¹⁰ It is evident that any change of emphasis has been accomplished through a readjustment of time within the school day, since the length of school sessions has not changed noticeably since 1866.¹¹ Table XLI shows a summary of current practice regarding the length of the school day. The

¹⁰ O. W. Caldwell and S. A. Courtis, *Then and Now in Education* (World Book Co., 1924).

¹¹ C. H. Mann, *op. cit.*, p. 135.

TABLE XL

PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL DAY DEVOTED TO OTHER THAN REGULAR INSTRUCTIONAL WORK (EXCLUDING TIME USED FOR OPENING EXERCISES, RECESS, AND HOME-ROOM PERIOD), ST. PAUL PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 1926-1927 *

(After Lenander)

MONTH	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS		
	Double Platoon	Single Platoon	Non-Platoon
September	2.0	3.2	1.5
October	2.9	1.9	2.7
November	2.9	1.3	1.4
December	3.3	2.2	2.6
January	1.9	3.0	3.0
February	1.3	1.4	1.6
March	1.6	1.2	1.7
April	2.2	1.8	1.4
May	12.1	1.3	1.5
June	12.1	16.3	9.6
Monthly Average	4.2	3.3	2.5

* Adopted from Fred Engelhardt, *op. cit.*, p. 425.

TABLE XLI

LENGTH OF SCHOOL DAY IN MINUTES, EXCLUSIVE OF NOON PERIOD, FOR EACH HALF-GRADE IN 444 CITIES, 1926 *

Minutes in School Day	Grade 1		Grade 2		Grade 3		Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6	
	L	H	L	H	L	H	L	H	L	H	L	H
Maximum	360	360	370	370	390	390	414	414	414	414	420	420
Q ₃	299	300	309	309	327	327	336	336	338	338	340	340
Median	276	277	294	295	307	307	317	317	323	323	330	330
Q ₁	248	249	272	272	292	292	304	304	309	309	310	310
Minimum	111	111	150	150	185	185	215	237	237	237	240	240

* Adapted from C. H. Mann, *op. cit.*, p. 127.

reader may well wonder how some schools are able to fulfil their obligations during such short sessions. It is difficult to find adequate justification for the extremely short daily sessions found in some cities, especially in view of the tremendous tasks which confront the elementary school of the present day. In some areas one of the important functions of a school is to provide a wholesome environment in which children may grow up. Longer daily sessions would be extremely helpful in this regard. The most desirable length of the school day is perhaps a question which each local unit must decide for itself. It is well to recognize, however, that the length of the school day, unlike the length of the school year, reflects the views of the community on an educational matter which is distinct from financial support.¹²

THE PROGRAM FOR INSTRUCTION AND THE PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING

The large number of subjects that have found their way into the elementary-school curriculum through one source or another has made it difficult to plan a school program which would not violate sound principles of educational procedure and still provide for all of the desired topics.¹³ Usually the situation has been met by dividing the school day into a series of brief periods, ten or fifteen minutes in length. It is doubtful whether a large number of short periods, each devoted to a different subject or topic which is frequently unrelated to the exercise preceding or following it, provides the most effective type of education. Except for the purely drill phases of learn-

¹² C. H. Judd (Chairman), *Report of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 34 (University of Chicago, 1927), p. 27.

¹³ In a recent study it was found that thirty-eight different subject titles were reported for the elementary school. See: H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, Northwestern University Contributions to Education, No. 5 (Evanston, Illinois, Northwestern University, School of Education, 1932), p. 54.

ing, modern educational theory suggests that instructional materials be organized into larger, meaningful units, built around the interests and needs of children, and carried out in a purposeful manner which will challenge the abilities of children. It is believed that educational procedure will be more effective if the school program is permeated with problems, projects, excursions, and activities of all kinds. If this is done, it may be desirable, not only to draw upon materials from many subject fields,¹⁴ but also to arrange the daily or weekly program of teachers so that activities, once initiated, need not be interrupted when interest is at a peak by the ringing of a bell or the passing of classes. Professional literature has recommended,¹⁵ and many schools have found it desirable to organize the program for teaching on the basis of longer daily periods and to permit flexibility and individual teacher control of school time so that the educational experiences of children may be executed properly.

The organization of the program for teaching is intimately related to the objectives of elementary education, methods of teaching, the psychology of learning, teaching skill, supervision, time allotments, and other aspects of education that might be mentioned. It is impossible, and perhaps not desirable, to recommend an ideal program and time distribution. Mann points out that optimum time allotments can be established only after research has determined:

¹⁴ E. L. Thorndike and A. I. Gates, *Elementary Principles of Education* (The Macmillan Co., 1929), p. 313.

C. A. Phillips, *Modern Methods and the Elementary Curriculum* (The Century Co., 1931), p. 12.

¹⁵ Clara B. Baker and others, *Curriculum Records of the Children's School, National College of Education*, Part III (Bureau of Publications, National College of Education, Evanston, Ill., 1932).

Ruth M. Hockett (Editor), *Teachers' Guide to Child Development* (Sacramento, California State Printing Office, 1930), Ch. iv.

Marion P. Stevens, *The Activities Curriculum in the Primary Grades* (D. C. Heath and Co., 1931), Ch. vi.

H. O. Rugg and Ann Shumaker, *The Child-Centered School* (World Book Co., 1928), Ch. vi.

1. A definite list of specific objectives and desirable outcomes for each subject which should be attained by pupils of the elementary grades.

2. The quantity, quality, and kind of educational experience necessary to insure achievement of the specific objectives.

3. The most effective methods of instruction and the proper grade placement of materials.¹⁹

No doubt the character of the school population served by a local unit will have important bearing upon the organization of the instructional program. If creative teaching is to be stimulated, it may not be desirable to establish a standard program pattern. The essential point is that the instructional program in any school should be organized so as to facilitate the execution of the educational policies which have been adopted. How some schools are meeting the situation will be shown subsequently.

DEPARTMENTALIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

Another question which frequently arises when planning an instructional program is whether each teacher shall be called upon to be a general practitioner, that is, teach all the subjects of the curriculum to the one group of children assigned to her, or whether each teacher may be permitted to specialize in one or a few subjects.

Specialization in teaching is not a recent departure in elementary-school organization. The division of the early Colonial schools into reading and writing schools was determined in part by the ability of the instructor to teach reading or writing and ciphering. Toward the close of the eighteenth century there came into prominence, particularly in the New England states, the type of school organization known as the "departmental school." The chief characteristic of the departmental organization was the vertical division of the course into a reading school and a writing school. Although the two departments were housed in the same building, each of the

¹⁹ C. H. Mann, *op. cit.*, p. 150.

units had its own master, its own room, its own set of studies, and its own corps of assistants. "The pupils attended each department in turn, changing from one school to the other at the end of each half-day session."¹⁷ Reorganization of the upper grades according to a plan of departmental teaching similar to the departmental work which is commonly found to-day in the upper grades, was started in New York City in 1900.¹⁸ The advantages of the plan soon induced other schools to try it, and, before a decade had elapsed, studies were made to determine how extensive departmental teaching had become.¹⁹ By 1913, 461 of the replies from 813 superintendents in the cities with populations of 5,000 and over indicated the existence of departmental teaching.²⁰

Recent studies show that departmental teaching has been introduced extensively into American elementary schools. Table XLII shows the grades in which the various subjects were departmentalized in the cities of Northern Illinois during the school year 1931-1932. In a more extensive investigation, made in 1929,²¹ it was found that current instructional programs could be classified into six types, each more or less distinctive. These plans, reported in Table XLIII, are as follows:

Plan A. The regular teacher teaches all academic and all special subjects to pupils enrolled in her room.

Plan B. The regular teacher teaches only the academic subjects to pupils enrolled in her room. A special teacher or supervisor visits the room at specified periods to teach one or more of the special subjects.

Plan C. Semi-departmentalized organization. Each teacher teaches more than one subject. Teachers move about from room to room.

¹⁷ F. F. Bunker, *Reorganization of the Public School System*, U. S. Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1916, No. 8, p. 29.

¹⁸ Van Evrie Kilpatrick, *Departmental Teaching in Elementary Schools* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1908), p. 5.

¹⁹ Charles S. Hartwell, "Promotion by Subject and Three-Year Courses," *School Review*, Vol. 15 (March, 1907), pp. 184-196.

²⁰ *Departmental Teaching in the Grades, Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June, 1913*, Vol. I (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1913), pp. 139-141.

²¹ H. J. Otto, *op. cit.*, Ch. iv.

Plan D. Semi-departmentalized organization. Each teacher teaches more than one subject. Pupils move about from room to room.

Plan E. Complete departmentalization. Each teacher is a specialist, teaching one subject only. Teachers move about from room to room.

Plan F. Complete departmentalization. Each teacher is a specialist, teaching one subject only. Pupils move about from room to room.

TABLE XLII

SUBJECTS AND GRADES IN WHICH DEPARTMENTAL TEACHING PREVAILS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF FORTY-EIGHT CITIES IN NORTHERN ILLINOIS, 1931-1932 *

Subject	Grades in Which the Subjects Are Departmentalized †							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Reading.....	1‡	6	12	26	36	37
Arithmetic.....	1	7	13	23	41	41
Algebra.....	2	2
English.....	6	12	22	42	43
History.....	6	13	23	27	27
Geography.....	6	14	24	24	18
Civics.....	1	1	5	10	21
Social science.....	7	25	23
Health education....	3	9	16	22	20
General science.....	3	6	24	24
Spelling.....	1	4	8	19	25	28
Nature study.....	2	5	7	8	13	11
Penmanship.....	1	4	9	18	25	23
Character education...	1	1	1	5	8	5
Art.....	6	7	8	15	18	28	39	33
Manual arts.....	2	1	3	9	31	31
Household arts.....	1	4	9	30	25
Music—voice.....	10	12	14	21	25	35	35	35
Music—class piano....	1	..	2	5	6	5	12	12
Physical education....	10	11	12	14	17	21	28	27
Others.....	..	1	2	3	3	5	8	11

* Courtesy of Superintendents Round Table of Northern Illinois.

† Data for upper grades include information from twenty-six cities which have a separate junior high school organization, nine of which include the sixth grade.

‡ Read as follows: One city has reading taught on the departmental plan in grade three, etc.

TABLE XLIII

ORGANIZATION OF THE PROGRAM FOR INSTRUCTION DURING SCHOOL YEAR 1928-1929 IN EIGHT-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 158 CITIES, AND IN SIX-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN 203 CITIES WITH POPULATIONS OF 2,500 TO 25,000 LOCATED IN THIRTY-ONE STATES *

GRADES	CITIES USING INSTRUCTION PLAN A		CITIES USING INSTRUCTION PLAN B		CITIES USING INSTRUCTION PLAN C		CITIES USING INSTRUCTION PLAN D		CITIES USING INSTRUCTION PLAN E		CITIES USING INSTRUCTION PLAN F	
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent
Eight-Year Schools												
I-VIII	8	5	17	11	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
I-VI	27	17	31	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I-V	8	5	14	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I-IV	9	6	9	6	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
III-VI	0	0	4	3	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
V-VIII	0	0	2	1	4	3	7	4	3	2	7	4
VI-VIII	0	0	1	1	9	6	16	10	5	3	7	4
VII-VIII	0	0	1	1	20	13	32	20	8	5	28	18
Total	52	33	79	50	36	23	59	37	16	10	42	27
Six-Year Schools												
I-VI	79	39	51	25	5	2	1	1	1	1	2	1
I-IV	10	5	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I-III	26	13	13	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
III-VI	0	0	7	3	4	2	4	2	1	1	0	0
IV-VI	0	0	3	1	21	10	11	5	3	1	3	1
V-VI	0	0	2	1	8	4	9	4	2	1	1	1
Total	115	57	80	39	38	19	25	12	7	3	6	3

* Southern states not included. Adopted from H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*.

The plan whereby the regular teacher is held responsible for all the instructional activities carried on in a particular classroom was found in 33 per cent of the eight-year and in 57 per cent of the six-year schools in cities with populations of 2,500 to 25,000. Programs of the type which provide that one or more of the special subjects be taught by special teachers or supervisors who visit the classrooms at regular specified periods were reported for 50 per cent of the eight-year and for 39 per cent of the six-year units. The various forms of departmentalization were found in from 10 per cent to 37 per cent of the eight-year schools and in from 3 per cent to 19 per cent of the six-year schools. Thus, a greater tendency toward differentiation or specialization in teaching is found among cities operating eight-year units than is found among the six-year schools.

The difference between the two types of organization which seems to be revealed by Table XLIII might lead one to believe that the organization for instruction in six-year schools is quite different from that found in eight-year schools. This conclusion no doubt is correct if the entire eight-year school is compared with the six-year units. However, a comparison of the practices in the first six grades of the eight-year schools with those found in the six-year schools in cities with populations of 2,500 to 25,000 shows these differences to be very small. These differences are given in Table XLIV. The greater amount of specialization in teaching in eight-year schools is due almost entirely to the departmental work which has been introduced into the seventh and eighth grades.

Specialization in teaching in eight-year schools in Minnesota towns with populations of less than 2,500 is less in amount than that found in eight-year schools in cities with populations ranging from 2,500 to 25,000. This finding is probably to be expected. Departmental teaching is found in 44 per cent of Minnesota schools and in 84 per cent of the eight-year schools in the larger cities investigated. Practices in eight-year schools in the smaller Minnesota communities are

more comparable to the practices in six-year schools in larger cities.

TABLE XLIV

COMPARATIVE DATA ON THE ORGANIZATION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM DURING SCHOOL YEAR 1928-1929

PRACTICE	EIGHT-YEAR SCHOOLS IN MINNESOTA TOWNS WITH POPULATIONS OF LESS THAN 2,500		EIGHT-YEAR SCHOOLS IN CITIES WITH POPULATIONS OF 2,500—25,000 *		SIX-YEAR SCHOOLS IN CITIES WITH POPULATIONS OF 2,500—25,000 †	
	Number of Cities‡	Per Cent of Cities	Number of Cities‡	Per Cent of Cities	Number of Cities§	Per Cent of Cities
No specialization of teaching in elementary school . . .	84	41	8	5	79	39
Special teachers or supervisors visit classrooms to teach the special subjects	51	25	79	50	80	39
Departmental teaching in grades below the fifth . .	36	17	8	5	12	6
Departmental teaching in fifth grade	44	21	25	16	65	32
Departmental teaching in sixth grade	89	33	56	35	67	33
Departmental teaching in seventh and eighth grades	83	40	133	84		
Departmental teaching in any or all elementary grades .	90	44	133	84	75	37

* These cities are located in thirty-one states, southern states not being included.

† The total number of these cities is 206.

‡ The total number of these cities is 158.

§ The total number of these cities is 203

It is evident from the above data that specialization in teaching has gained favor in elementary-school organization. Shall it be encouraged and extended? The theoretical arguments pro and con have been postulated by other writers.²² An answer to this question should probably be based on the evidence which has been gathered as to its success in the past with respect to the welfare of children and its administrative

²² W. H. Maxwell, "Departmental Teaching," in *Report of City Superintendent of Schools, New York* (July, 1905), pp. 195-203.

T. H. Briggs, *The Junior High School* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920), pp. 127-130.

feasibility. The question whether each classroom teacher shall be held responsible for all instructional activities in a particular grade or whether varying degrees of specialization in teaching shall prevail in the elementary school must ultimately be subjected to these criteria. Let us examine briefly each of these considerations.

THE WELFARE OF CHILDREN

It may be assumed that any device which results in larger and better achievements (the word "achievements" being used in a broad sense) and which provides more adequately for the individual differences of children, contributes to the welfare of children. At present, efforts to determine scientifically whether departmental teaching, as such, produces better results have confined themselves almost entirely to subject-matter outcomes. An extensive study in this regard was conducted in Cleveland by A. W. Stewart.²³ The experiment was begun in January 1923 and was continued for three semesters. Enough pupils were available to make two groups for each of Grades 5-B, 6-B, 6-A, 7-B, and 8-B. The groups were equated on the basis of mental ability as determined by the average score on Forms A and B of the National Intelligence Test. The teachers were rotated at the end of the first semester. Other items, such as textbooks and course of study, were controlled as far as possible. Progress was measured in terms of gains on standard achievement tests in reading, arithmetic, spelling, geography, history, language, and grammar.

For each grade included, one group of pupils (the Alpha group) was taught by the departmental plan for two semesters while the other group (the Beta group) was taught by the grade method for an equal period of time. During the third semester of the experiment both groups were taught on the departmental plan. The first analysis made by Stewart

²³ A. W. Stewart, *A Comparison of Departmental and Grade Teaching*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Ohio State University, 1927.

showed that there were 887 pairs of individual gains to be compared, and that in 519 of these, or 58.5 per cent, the Beta (grade method) gains exceeded the Alpha gains. In the second analysis of gains the averages of the two groups were compared. The results showed an advantage of 43 per cent for the Beta group. In this analysis, when class averages in each subject or test were considered, it was also found that twenty-five out of thirty-four comparisons were in favor of the Beta group. An examination of the progress of the Alpha and Beta groups for each of the three semesters showed that the Alpha group did relatively poorer work during the first semester and that the Beta group did relatively poorer work during the third semester (after they had been changed to the departmental plan). Stewart suggests that these shifts in superior gains may be due in part to a period of adjustment following the introduction of departmental teaching. He also indicates that one thing is certain, namely, the pupils who were taught departmentally made considerably poorer gains than those taught according to the grade plan. The total advantage for the Beta group was 43 per cent, with a minimum value statistically almost certain to be greater than 21 per cent.²⁴

Another controlled experiment in this field was conducted in Clarksville, Arkansas, during the school year 1929-1930.²⁵ In one building the pupils of Grades 4, 5 and 6 were taught according to a departmental plan while in another building the corresponding grades were taught by the traditional grade method. Objective tests in five academic subjects were used. Only the scores of pupils matched according to initial criteria were utilized in the final analysis. The results, summarized in Table XLV, suggest that some subjects are taught more effectively under the departmental organization whereas achievement in other subjects seems to be greater if the grade

²⁴ A. W. Stewart, *op. cit.*, pp. 90-92.

²⁵ J. R. Gerberich and C. E. Prall, "Departmental Organization Versus Traditional Organization in the Intermediate Grades," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 31 (May, 1931), pp. 671-677.

TABLE XLV

RELIABILITY OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FINAL AVERAGE SCORES
MADE BY MATCHED GROUPS IN SCHOOL WITH DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZA-
TION AND IN SCHOOL WITH GRADE ORGANIZATION *

SUBJECT	FINAL SCORE IN SCHOOL WITH		DIFFER- ENCE	PROB- ABLE ERROR OF THE DIFFER- ENCE	DIFFERENCE DIVIDED BY PROBABLE ERROR OF THE DIFFERENCE	
	Depart- mental Organi- zation	Grade Organi- zation			Depart- mental Organi- zation	Grade Organi- zation
GRADE 4						
Arithmetic...	108.59	66.23	42.36	8.31	5.10↓
Spelling.....	71.55	76.15	4.60	2.59	1.78
Reading.. ..	38.04	48.78	10.74	2.47	4.35↑
English	44.74	39.09	5.65	1.52	3.72↑
Geography..	32.31	39.44	7.13	1.76	4.05↑
GRADE 5						
Arithmetic...	133.68	123.96	9.72	8.87	1.10
Spelling.....	77.87	79.83	2.06	3.46	0.60
Reading.....	57.00	64.07	7.07	3.10	2.28
English	52.70	50.45	2.25	1.84	1.22
Geography..	47.21	60.24	13.03	1.82	7.16↑
GRADE 6						
Arithmetic...	163.78	127.77	36.01	9.80	3.67↑
Spelling.....	62.17	63.96	1.79	3.42	0.52
Reading.....	66.44	66.19	0.25	2.79	0.09
English.....	51.80	51.55	0.25	2.76	0.09
Geography...	77.34	73.79	3.55	3.74	0.95

* From J. R. Gerberich and C. E. Prall, "Departmental Organization Versus Traditional Organization in the Intermediate Grades," *op. cit.*, p. 676.

† These differences were found to be of satisfactory statistical reliability.

organization is preserved. The authors of the study conclude that there seems to be little evidence upon which to base any generalization regarding the effectiveness of either plan of organization. Eight differences, three of which are fairly significant, show higher achievement under departmentalization. Seven differences, three of which are fairly conclusive, favor the grade plan. On the whole, the teachers in the school having the grade organization were best prepared in the fields of reading and English and expressed more interest in those subjects than in others; yet, they taught only one of these subjects more effectively than did the departmental teacher, and the difference in that subject was not consistently maintained in every grade.

The advocates of the platoon school have been among the most ardent supporters of departmental teaching. The studies which have been made to evaluate the platoon school have failed to show unquestioned superiority of that form of organization in producing subject-matter achievements.²⁶ A distinction should probably be made between the platoon type of organization and departmental teaching in the traditional school program. In some instances the educational offerings of these two plans of organization differ materially. Obviously the platoon school includes a variety of administrative practices, in addition to departmental teaching, which are not commonly found in the traditional type of organization. Hence some would question whether studies of the platoon school are primarily evaluations of departmental teaching.

The adherents of the platoon school and the advocates of departmental teaching maintain that the values of this form of teaching accrue in the field of (as yet) unmeasured out-

²⁶ C. L. Spain, *The Platoon School: A Study of the Adoption of the Elementary School Organization to the Curriculum* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1924), Ch. iv.

S. A. Courtis, *The Gary Schools, Measurement of Classroom Products* (New York, General Education Board, 1919).

H. P. Shepard, "Some Platoon School Results," *Platoon School*, Vol. 4 (February, 1931), pp. 176-180.

comes, such as the happiness of pupils. This contention, however, has little support from scientific evidence. It is possible that the proportion of these unmeasured outcomes secured in schools organized on the traditional plan but permeated with the newer educational theories is as great as those secured in the platoon schools or in schools using departmental teaching.

One objection which is frequently raised against departmental teaching is that it results in the disintegration rather than the integration of the pupil's experience. Bonser has called attention to a number of factors which tend to prevent the integration of pupil experiences,²⁷ among these being the separation of the tool subjects from the activities in which the tools are used, the periodic shifting of classes, the large number of pupils that each teacher must meet daily, and the fact that a number of different teachers are making demands upon the same pupil. In some schools deliberate attempts to overcome some of these criticisms have resulted in projects that appear to be well coördinated and articulated.²⁸

Professional literature has repeatedly called striking attention to individual differences among children and the need for thoroughly knowing and understanding the "whole child" in order to guide his efforts properly.²⁹ It is not definitely known how many or what kinds of contacts with pupils are necessary to enable a teacher to recognize individual differences as recommended by professional literature. Neither is it clearly understood how the organization of a school may interfere with or make less difficult the practical application

²⁷ F. G. Bonser, "Reasons for My Objections to the Platoon Plan," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 27 (December, 1925), pp. 306-310.

²⁸ Elvira McDonald, "Correlation as It Was Carried Out in a Platoon School," *Educational Method*, Vol. 10 (October, 1930), pp. 24-29.

²⁹ H. M. Corning, "Looking at the Whole Child," in the *Official Report of the Convention of the Department of Superintendence* (Detroit, Michigan, 1931), pp. 91-96.

W. J. Cooper, "Knowledge of the Whole Being," in the *Official Report of the Convention of the Department of Superintendence* (Detroit, Michigan, 1931), pp. 120-127.

of this doctrine. A teacher's schedule of recitations, the total number of different students taught each day or week, and the frequency and duration of contacts with students are likely to be important factors in determining the extent to which a teacher is able to know and to understand thoroughly each pupil's needs. As a rule, teachers of special subjects make much less contact with students than departmental teachers of academic subjects (Tables XLVI and XLVII) and the

TABLE XLVI

INSTRUCTIONAL LOADS OF THREE INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS *

Subject Taught	Number of Different Pupils in Class	Number of Times a Week Pupils Are Met	Number of Weekly Pupil- Recitation Hours
Art.....	557	1	557
Mathematics.....	120	5	600
Stenography and typewriting..	61	10	610

* From P. W. Hutson, "A Neglected Factor in the Teaching Load," *School Review*, Vol. 40 (March, 1932), p. 197.

"grade" teachers, because they have the same pupils all day every day of the semester or year. It is uncertain whether recognition of individual differences and "knowing the whole child" may be attained better if grade teachers have complete charge of all pupils' school activities for one semester or year and then shift to another group, or if departmental teachers have charge of smaller portions of each period's work but retain the same pupils for several semesters.

Hutson has called striking attention to the total number of different pupils met per week as a factor in the teaching load.³⁰ Although his data were gathered in the junior high

³⁰ P. W. Hutson, "A Neglected Factor in the Teaching Load," *School Review*, Vol. 40 (March, 1932), pp. 192-203.

TABLE XLVII

TEACHER SPAN (SHOWING THE ALLOCATION OF SUBJECTS)*

Enrollment	Grade	Home Room	Special Rooms	
120	7	English History Geography	Library	
107	6	Arithmetic Art and Writing		
		2 Vocational Guidance		
143	5	English History Geography Arithmetic	Auditorium Music	Principal Nurse
159	4	English Reading Geography Arithmetic	2 Gymnasiums	Secretary Music (Instrumental)
139	3	Reading Language Arithmetic Geography		
126	2	2 Reading Language Arithmetic	Auditorium	
198	1	2 Reading Phonics	Gymnasium	
992	7	26 Periods	7 Periods	4 Periods

* From R. D. Case, *The Platoon School in America*, p. 37.

school, they have implications for the elementary school. A portion of the interpretation of his data follows:

In harmony with the trend of industrial civilization toward specialization and therefore expertness in a narrow field of endeavor, we

have been moving rapidly in our schools toward finer and finer specialization of the teacher's work. In addition to the horizontal division, there is a vertical division which follows the lines of cleavage between the various subjects of the adult-organized world. Perhaps we have been dimly aware of the fact that such specialization narrows the teacher's load on the X-axis (number of contacts with pupils), but it seems that we have not been particularly aware of the lengthening of the teacher's load on the Y-axis (number of different pupils met). Unless the public is willing to shoulder larger instructional costs, the shortening of the X-axis inevitably means a complementary extension of the Y-axis. Specialization in teaching, as in the automobile industry, simply means that the worker makes slight contact with many units of the product instead of many and extended contacts with a few units. One of the alleged advantages of large factories and large schools is that they facilitate this specialization. Is the school properly analogous to the factory? If so, to what degree does the analogy hold?

Obviously, such questions open up large issues in education. Several of these were ably stated and argued by Spain and Bonser a few years ago in their exposition of the merits and disadvantages of the platoon school.* Regardless of the clash of philosophies over the issue of specialization in the teaching load, the recent scientific demonstrations of individual differences in capacities, interests, achievements, and environments have created more general acceptance than ever before of the concept that thorough knowledge of the pupil largely conditions the effectiveness of our efforts to educate him. How many pupils the teacher can know and how many contacts he needs with his pupils in order to know them are questions which are hard to answer, but it is a fact that junior high school teachers are frequently heard distressfully expressing their inability to know the individuals in the changing crowds which face them.⁴¹

ADMINISTRATIVE FEASIBILITY OF DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION

The administrative feasibility of departmental teaching may be considered from at least two points of view: costs and supervision. If a comparison is made between the traditional

* C. L. Spain, "The Platoon School and the Superintendent," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 27 (December, 1925), pp. 293-305.

F. G. Bonser, *op. cit.*

⁴¹ P. W. Hutson, *op. cit.*, pp. 200-201.

plan whereby the pupil receives all his instruction from one teacher and some plan of specialization in teaching which permits the regular teachers to be idle or to carry an underload of pupils while the special teachers are in charge of the classes, the former plan is obviously less expensive. Spain points out clearly the economies which may be effected in teachers' salaries by the type of departmentalization in operation in platoon schools as compared to the type found in non-platoon schools.³² In a sixteen-section platoon school, for example, the average number of teachers employed is 18.48. In a partially departmentalized non-platoon school of similar size the average number of teachers employed is 20.16. The waste of teacher service is due to the employment of special teachers who are working while the regular teachers are idle or while they are carrying an underload of pupils. Doubtless departmental programs could be arranged which would not result in this waste in teacher service. In a small school teachers might exchange classes so that each teacher could teach one or more of her favorite subjects. In larger schools it might be possible to assign to each teacher only her favorite or special subject. With such arrangements salary costs ought not to differ unless teachers are paid more when they are permitted to teach their specialties.

It is also argued that departmental teaching makes for economies in equipment. The cost of equipment varies according to the community and the educational policy. If departmental teachers are supplied with only the meager equipment which in many instances was supplied to teachers under the "single-teacher" plan, the cost of equipment is likely to be less. The study by Shepherd shows that for platoon schools the majority of cities report a greater cost of equipment.³³ Here, again, the cost of equipment in platoon schools should probably not be compared with equipment costs in depart-

³² C. L. Spain, "The Platoon School and the Superintendent," *op. cit.*, pp. 193-212.

³³ H. P. Shepherd, *op. cit.*, p. 177.

mentalized non-platoon schools; some discrepancies may exist that are not taken into account.

EVALUATION BY PUPILS, TEACHERS, AND EDUCATORS

It is not clearly understood to what extent opinion should determine the administrative practices which should be incorporated in elementary-school organization. It would probably be unwise to insist on a form of organization which did not have the sympathetic support of the individuals who are to function in that organization. It may be of interest to refer briefly to an experience with departmental teaching in the elementary schools in Cleveland and reported by Buckley.³⁴ During the second semester of 1928-1929 a form of semi-departmentalization was tried in Grades 3-6, inclusive, in one school. At the end of the semester all the teachers voted against the plan, while 75 per cent of the pupils voted for it. In the room of the strongest teacher 90 per cent of the pupils voted against the plan. In the rooms of the weakest teachers almost 100 per cent of the pupils voted for it. It must be remembered that the teachers had their training and experience under the older plan. The trial period may have been too short to permit of the necessary adjustments. In another study a questionnaire submitted to representative educators and classroom teachers revealed the fact that about 50 per cent of the former and 86 per cent of the latter favor departmentalization.³⁵ Most of the teachers included in the latter study had had some experience with departmental teaching. These teachers recorded eleven factors which they considered demerits of departmentalization and fifteen items which they considered advantages of the plan. The authors of the article last cited did not report the frequency with which each of

³⁴ "Difficulties in Introducing Departmental Teaching," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 30 (April, 1930), pp. 574-575.

³⁵ Evande Becker and Nell K. Gleason, "Departmentalization in the Intermediate Grades," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 28 (September, 1927), pp. 62-66.

the items was given by the teachers. Hence, it is difficult to know which appear to be the most pertinent of the problems involved.

THE FUNCTION OF ORGANIZATION

One can hardly consider a question, such as that presented by departmental teaching, without giving some thought to the part in the educative processes which is played by organization. Some would lead us to believe that the quickest way to change from the ideals of a generation or two to the new movements and methods in education is to change the form of organization.⁴⁶ Nothing could be more misleading. No doubt the reason why so many departures in organization have failed to produce the advantages on the basis of which theorists have succeeded in "selling" them to the public is that the new institution has been dominated by the old ideas. The innovations result in nothing more than traditional practices and points of view in new administrative units which bear a false glamour. It would seem that no educational unit can attain the aims and functions assigned to it unless those who carry the immediate responsibility for classroom instruction—the teachers—manifest in their thinking and in their classroom technique the basic theories and philosophies which were made the foundations of the institution.

It may be that, in the zeal for putting into practice the newer educational theories, inadequate attention has been given to the part which organization can play. Possibly all would agree that there are few instances in education or in other fields in which organization alone can secure the desired outcomes. Organization at best can only facilitate, can only create the setting by means of which the objectives may be attained. Some of the experimental studies of ability grouping present glaring illustrations of what happens when administrative practices, without the aid of properly adjusted teaching

⁴⁶ C. L. Spain, "The Platoon School and the Superintendent," *op. cit.*, pp. 293-305.

methods and materials, are expected to produce the desired results.³⁷ Many of the experiments in ability grouping have failed to take advantage of the opportunities which this administrative device made possible. Hence, in many cases the results have been negative or inconclusive. It is likely that in many instances the services which organization or administrative practices may render have been far from exhausted. The samples of programs for instruction which follow illustrate how some schools have shaped their organization so that the educational policies might be carried out effectively. The reader is cautioned to bear in mind that the programs to be presented are not to be considered as standards or ideals. It is hoped that they will be suggestive.

SAMPLE PROGRAMS FOR INSTRUCTION

Case 1. First grade of a public school. In this school the large number of short periods, each devoted to an activity

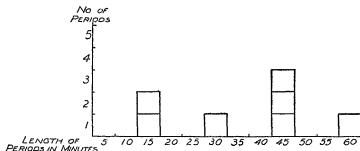


FIG. 11. NUMBER AND LENGTH OF PERIODS IN SAMPLE FIRST-GRADE PROGRAM.

more or less isolated from the one which precedes and succeeds it, has been replaced by a smaller number (Fig. 11) of

³⁷ A. H. Turney, "The Status of Ability Grouping," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 17 (January and February, 1931), pp. 21-42, and 110-127.

long periods. Table XLVIII gives the sequence of events and types of subject-matter which constitute the center of interest during the various parts of the day. Note that the arrangement and flexibility of the program make it possible to provide integrated educative experiences, built around larger centers of interest. All the subjects of the conventional first-grade curriculum are included, and given appropriate allotment of time, but each is brought in at its most opportune relationship to other phases of work. Note also the opportunities, suggested at several points, for sectioning pupils according to individual differences and needs. An ingenious teacher would be enabled to put into practice what professional literature has suggested for the recognition of individual differences

TABLE XLVIII
CLASSROOM PROGRAM FOR FIRST GRADE *

Time	Activity
8:45— 9:30	Free period. For individual problems and projects. Care of pets, plants, etc.
9:30—10:15	Language. Writing. Discussion of morning work and plans for next day. Incidental reading in this connection.
10:15—10:30	Recess. Milk.
10:30—11:30	Play period, outdoors or in gymnasium. Reading, phonics, word drill, games. Distributed according to needs of different groups.
1:00— 1:45	Reading, two groups. Alternate groups go to gymnasium.
1:45— 2:00	Recess.
2:00— 2:30	Singing, Story-hour.

* From Annie E. Moore, *The Primary School*, p. 37.

Case 2. Grade 6, Children's School, National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois. The tentative weekly schedule outlined in Table XLIX represents current practice in a school which shares the belief that one chief purpose of the curriculum is to habituate the children to ways of living that are satisfying and worth-while and that will lead them into

TABLE XLIX

TENTATIVE WEEKLY PROGRAM

Grade 6.—Children's School, National College of Education *

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY	
8:30	Individual work period					
9:00	Social arithmetic and arithmetic practice					
9:30	Manual training room and home economics room available	Spelling and language usage	Manual training room and home economics room available	Spelling and language usage		
10:00		Art and social studies		Art and social studies	Writing practice	
10:30	Projection room available	Music activities				
11:00	Playground activities					
11:30	Informal work in social studies (involving reading, oral and written composition)					
12:30	Lunch and rest (menu chosen by child as part work in hygiene)					
1:30	Art (individual and grade)	French	Art (individual and grade)	French		
2:00	Group interests and needs	Outdoor play	Group interests and needs	Outdoor play		
2:30	Games and creative dancing	Free reading in library	Games and creative dancing	Individual reading in the library. Individual help for some		
3:00	Dismissal					

* From Clara B. Baker and others, *Curriculum Records of the Children's School*, p. 261.

rich and productive living as they grow more mature.³⁸ "Although the program provides a time for each kind of activity, these various types of activity are not carried on as isolated 'subjects,' but are usually unified by certain large purposes or goals. Time is allowed for individual practice in the mastery of certain fundamental skills. Small groups are formed within each room according to individual needs and interests. The program is flexible and may be altered from month to month or day to day, except that periods devoted to physical needs must remain fairly constant. Both room teachers and special teachers are willing to adjust the schedule to allow time for excursions, sketching trips, cooking enterprises, experiments in science, projection of films and slides, and other enriching experiences."³⁹

Special teachers of music, art, and manual training assist the room teachers in the guidance of certain activities, but all work in close harmony so the educational experiences of children may be thoroughly integrated. A special teacher of speech gives help to all children of the school who have speech difficulties.

Case 3. Grades 5 and 6, Dalton laboratory plan, Trombly Elementary School, Grosse Pointe, Michigan.⁴⁰ During the year 1931-1932 Grades 5B, 5A, 6B, and 6A, comprising four groups of pupils and four teachers of academic subjects, were organized on a laboratory plan. Each of the four teachers took charge of a laboratory in which she directed the work of pupils from the four grades included. The four laboratories were as follows: room 101, geography and science; room 201, reading and history; room 203, English; room 205, arithmetic.

Table L shows the program in its revised form after the

³⁸ Clara B. Baker and others, *Curriculum Records of the Children's School* (Evanston, Illinois, Bureau of Publications, National College of Education, 1932), p. 3.

³⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 249.

⁴⁰ Courtesy of Mrs. Ethel J. Cowe, principal of Trombly Elementary School, Grosse Pointe, Michigan.

TABLE L
DEPARTMENTAL PROGRAM
Grades 5B, 5A, 6B, and 6A, Dalton Laboratory Plan, Grosse Pointe, Michigan *

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
9:00—9:15	Organization (Budgeting time)				
9:15—11:15	Laboratory (Academics)				
11:15—11:45	Gymnasium † 5B, 5A, 6B, 6A	5B Art † 5A <i>Arith. Con.</i> † 6B <i>English Con.</i> 6A Music †	Gymnasium 5B, 5A, 6B, 6A	5B Art 5A Hygiene 6B <i>Reading Con.</i> 6A Music	Gymnasium 5B, 5A, 6B, 6A
11:45—12:45	Noon Intermission				
12:45—1:30	All labs open except Reading Activity—Moore §	All labs open except <i>Arith.</i> Activity—Lieb §	All labs open except Geography Activity—Olson §	All labs open except English Activity—Bied §	All labs open
1:30—2:00	5A <i>Geog. Con.</i> 6B <i>Reading Con.</i> 6A <i>English Con.</i> 5B <i>Arith. Con.</i>	5B <i>Geog. Con.</i> 6B <i>Arith. Con.</i> 5A <i>English Con.</i> 6A <i>Reading Con.</i>	6A <i>Geog. Con.</i> 6B <i>English Con.</i> 5A <i>Arith. Con.</i> 5B <i>Reading Con.</i>	6B <i>Geog. Con.</i> 5B <i>English Con.</i> 6A <i>Arith. Con.</i> 5.1 <i>Reading Con.</i>	All labs open

THE PROGRAM FOR INSTRUCTION

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
2:00—2:30	5B, 5A, 6B Spelling and Penmanship <i>6A Reading Con.</i>	5B, 5A, 6B Spelling and Penmanship 6A Art	5B, 5A, 6B Spelling and Penmanship 6A Library	5B, 5A, 6B Spelling and Penmanship 6A Art	5B, 5A, 6B Spelling and Penmanship 6A Hygiene
2:30—3:00	5A Library 6B Music 6A Spelling— Penmanship	5B Music 5A Art 6B Library 6A Spelling— Penmanship	5B Arith. Con. 5A English Con. 6B Music 6A Spelling— Penmanship	5B Music 5A Art 6B Hygiene 6A Spelling— Penmanship	5B English Con. 5A Geog. Con. 6B Reading Con.
3:00—3:30	Home Room Clubs	5A Music 5B Hygiene 6B Art 6A Geog. Con.	5B Library 5A Reading Con. 6B Geog. Con. 6A Arith. Con.	5B Reading Con. 5A Music 6B Art 6A English Con.	Assembly

* Courtesy of Mrs. Ethel J. Cowe, principal, Trombley Elementary School

† Taught by special teacher.

‡ Conference period.

§ Names of cooperating teachers in charge of the laboratories. During this period each teacher sponsors one type of special activity which pupils may elect.

newly adopted organization had been under way about four months. Note that during the first fifteen minutes each morning the pupil is given an opportunity to plan his work for the day. Sample daily programs of pupils are given in Table LI. Every morning each pupil's proposed schedule for the day is examined and either revised in conference or approved by a student chairman. The purpose of this check is to assist those who need help in planning their work in accordance with their interests and needs in the various subjects. Pupils are encouraged to keep an "even front" in the subjects in which they are allowed to budget their own time and to determine their own progress. To this end extensive progress charts are maintained for each pupil in the home room.

From 9:15 to 11:15 A.M. and from 12:45 to 1:30 P.M. (with certain exceptions, see Table L) each day and also from 1:30 to 2:00 P.M. on Fridays pupils are free to work in any one or

TABLE LI

SAMPLE DAILY PROGRAM OF PUPILS UNDER LABORATORY PLAN

Pupil: James Schaefer, Grade 5A
Date: June 2, 1932

Pupil: Beth McNeill, Grade 6A
Date: May 17, 1932

A.M.		A.M.	
9:00— 9:15	Budgeting	9:00— 9:15	Budgeting
9:15—10:00	History	9:15—10:00	Geography
10:00—10:30	Art conference	10:00—10:45	Arithmetic
10:30—11:15	Geography	10:45—11:15	Reading and history
11:15—11:45	Music	11:15—11:45	Gymnasium
P.M.		P.M.	
12:45— 1:30	Arithmetic	12:45— 1:30	English
1:30— 2:00	Arithmetic conference	1:30— 2:00	English conference
2:00— 2:30	Art	2:00— 2:30	History conference
2:30— 3:00	Spelling and pen- manship	2:30— 3:00	Spelling and pen- manship
3:00— 3:30	English conference	3:00— 3:30	Club

more of the four laboratories. The content of the subjects taught in each of the laboratories is organized into mimeographed units or contracts so that each pupil may progress at

his own rate. Adequate checks and examinations (in the administration of which pupil assistance is used) are provided to insure mastery of essential elements.

When the program was first initiated, one conference period per week was provided for each grade and subject. It later proved desirable to schedule two conferences a week for each subject in each grade (Table L). To avoid conflicts, the conference periods are definitely scheduled in the weekly program, but each laboratory teacher is free to alter, according to the nature of the topics being discussed and the needs of the pupils, the amount of time needed for conferences. Periods for the teaching of physical education, music, and art are arranged to fit the programs of special teachers who have responsibilities in other elementary schools of the city.

An essential feature to be noted is that the program for instruction has been planned so as to make it easier to provide for individual differences and to facilitate the execution of the educational policies. Since each teacher has under her tutelage pupils from four consecutive grades, it is convenient to disregard "grade classification" and to group her pupils according to their needs and abilities in the subject which she teaches. For conferences in reading, for example, the pupils are divided into six groups, not according to grade designation, but according to reading ability. Additional conferences with small groups may be arranged conveniently during the laboratory periods since the teacher is relatively free during such periods to devote all of her time to teaching and direction of pupils.

One of the basic theories underlying the laboratory plan calls for considerable emphasis on the development of independence, self-direction, self-reliance, and good, coöperative citizenship in the student. The arrangement of the program makes it possible to delegate to the pupil the responsibility for planning economically the free time at his disposal each day. Whether this type of school procedure results in the development of the hoped-for traits has not been proven, but

the essential point to which attention is called here is that the arrangement of the instructional program makes it possible to effect the educational policy.

To assist in attaining the objectives of independence and good citizenship, each home room is organized into a club or civic league which meets once a week. These clubs undertake the management of nearly all phases of school life, giving consideration to such problems as talking in corridors, disputes, carrying contracts out of laboratories, noise at lockers, untidy lockers, forgetting materials, lack of courtesy, neatness of rooms and desks, and care and pride in keeping notebooks and graphs. Each club sends its representatives to the student council which meets at 8:30 each Tuesday morning.

Case 4. Grades 4, 5, and 6, public schools, Cicero, Illinois.⁴¹ After a revision of the curriculum for the intermediate grades, it was found desirable to change the organization of the program for instruction so that the educational principles embodied in the new course of study might be carried out more effectively in classroom teaching. Table LII presents the instructional program which was inaugurated in September 1932.

The principles of integration, coöperation, and organization were accepted as basic guides in the development of the curriculum. Each of these principles may be illustrated briefly as they were conceived and applied by teachers and supervisory officers. It was believed that the educational experiences provided for children should be integrated activities, having social significance, and having vital relationship to the life needs and interests of children. Hence, the content of the course was organized into a sequence of large, meaningful units. The major themes for a large number of these units were drawn from the field of social science. Other themes were taken from such fields as literature, science, and health. All of the units were classified under the major heading (Table

⁴¹ Courtesy of Mr. Marion Jordan, academic supervisor of intermediate and upper grades, Cicero, Illinois.

LII) entitled "Efficient Living in a Democratic Society." Although the core of this aspect of the curriculum is drawn from the field of social studies, the content upon which pupils draw in developing each of the units is taken from any source that is helpful. Many and varied teaching techniques and a large number of different kinds of pupil activities are employed in carrying out each of the units. Thus art, music, industrial arts, penmanship, arithmetic, language, creative expression, reading, literature, and so on, are called into service to provide integrated educative experiences which it is hoped will enable children to live efficiently in a democratic society.

Extensive coöperation from all teachers, both regular and special, and supervisors of art, music, physical education, and dramatics are available on request to give guidance and assistance as the successive units are developed.

Provision is also made in the program for systematic instruction and drill upon those common integrating knowledges and skills which are demanded of all children. These knowledges and skills include, not only the conventional 3 R's, but also certain essential acquisitions in art, music, and health. The drill aspects of the curriculum have been scheduled for a time when they will interfere least with the essential activities.

The principle of organization applies in a two-fold way. In the first place, it relates to the selection and organization of units which constitute the core of the curriculum. Secondly, it applies to the arrangement of the instructional program. Beyond doubt, the schedule and time allotments have been planned so that the educational policies underlying the curriculum may find expression in classroom instruction. Note the long and flexible periods which permit teachers to vary from day to day the time spent upon a certain subject or activity, depending upon the needs of children, their interest in the subject at hand, and the state of development of the unit, project, drill lesson or whatever the work at hand may be. Observe also that the social studies, which in this case

TABLE LII
PROGRAM FOR INSTRUCTION, INTERMEDIATE GRADES
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, CICERO, ILLINOIS *

Time	Grade 4	Grade 5	Time	Grade 6 ¶
9:00 to 10:15	<i>Integrating Knowledge and Skills</i> Arithmetical experiences (†), 35— 45 † min. 5 § Language arts (†), 30—40 min. . . . 5 § (spelling, word study, language usage)		8:45 to 10:15	The social sciences, 90 min 4 § (integrated units): Extra health and safety instruction and club activities, 45—80 min . . . Fri.
10:15 to 10:30	Intermissions (health habits)			
10:30 to 12:00	<i>Efficient Living in a Democratic Society</i> A. The social sciences (†), 90 min. 5 § Social studies Health and safety instruction Integrated social activities, in- volving construction, art, music, literature, science, in- vestigation, expression, etc.		10:30 to 12:00	Worth-while activities and self- expression. 1. Reading, literature, self-expres- sion, 60 min 4 § 2. Science, 60 min Fri. 3. Language arts, 30 min. 5 §

Noon Intermission			
12:00 to 1:00			
	B. Worth-while activities and self-expression		
1:00 to 2:30	1. Reading, literature, science experiences, and self-expression (†), 90 min., M., W., F., 45 min., Tues., Th.	1:00 to 2:30	Arithmetic, 45 min. 5 § Extra reading or library, 45 min. Tues., W., F. Physical education, 45 min. M., Th.
2:30 to 2:45	Intermissions (health habits)		
2:45 to 3:30	<i>Integrating Knowledge and Skills</i> Art (†) and (‡), 45 min. 1 § Music (†) and (‡), 25 min. 4 § Writing (†), 20 min. 4 §	2:45 to 3:30	Art, 20 min. 2 § and 25 min. 3 § Music, 25 min. 2 § and 20 min. 3 §

* Courtesy of Mr. Marion Jordan, academic supervisor, Cicero, Illinois.

† Taught by general grade teacher.

‡ These figures indicate number of minutes per day. Note flexible time allotments.

§ These figures indicate number of days per week that class meets.

|| Taught by special teacher.

¶ Grade 6 is incorporated in the program of a three-year, upper-grade departmental organization. The curriculum is organized around three major departments, social science, English, and arithmetic. Departmental teaching is practiced.

are assumed to constitute the intellectual core of the curriculum, are placed at an early period in the daily schedule so that interests aroused, or problems initiated during the social science period may be exploited and directed during the reading and library periods. Although in actual practice the program allows even more flexibility than the time schedule of Table LII would indicate, ample provision is made for systematic instruction and drill. Definitely scheduled periods are set aside when special teachers of art, music, and physical education and dramatics may visit each building in the city to perform such teaching and supervisory duties as have been assigned to them. The special teachers and supervisors are also available at the request of the regular room teachers if assistance is needed in projects.

Obviously, to operate effectively an instructional program such as the one described above, requires intelligent professional leadership on the part of both teachers and administrative officers. The fact that this program is in operation in a community in which the training required of teachers is the same as that generally found in school systems at large suggests that reorganization is not an insurmountable task for the average school system. Regardless of what criticisms the reader may make of the choice of terminology, the time schedule, or other items of the program for instruction shown in Table LII, it will doubtless be admitted that it does represent an earnest attempt to devise an instructional program through which the basic educational policies may find expression in classroom instruction.

SUGGESTED PRINCIPLES FOR ORGANIZING A PROGRAM FOR INSTRUCTION

As the reader analyzed the sample programs given above, he no doubt observed features which were characteristic of some, if not of all, of them. It may be helpful to summarize these, as well as certain others that have been suggested in

professional literature.⁴² It may be well not to look upon either the sample programs or the summarized items as standards, but rather as guiding principles.

Perhaps the most essential feature to bear in mind is that the program for instruction should facilitate the execution of the educational policies which have been adopted. The schedule of activities and the selection and assignment of teachers, as well as other administrative practices, should grow out of and be determined by the educational program to be effected, rather than that the instructional program should determine the educational program. This principle is rather broad and all-inclusive, yet it is fundamental and controls in part the extent to which other features may be applied effectively.

If individual differences are actually to be recognized in school practice, the daily or weekly program of classroom teachers must be planned to give the teacher the occasion and the time to reach individuals and small groups. Some schools are meeting this need by providing longer and more flexible periods and permitting teachers to vary the program and time allotment according to the needs of their pupils. Courses of study and supervisory procedures are rich with helpful suggestions for classroom management when several groups of pupils of varying abilities are simultaneously directed by the same teacher. Proposed topics for enrichment, together with the necessary materials, are made available for teachers and pupils. Some schools find it desirable to schedule an additional daily period for diagnostic and remedial work as well as clubs and special-interest classes.

⁴² *Teachers' Guide to Child Development*, U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1930, No. 26, Ch. iii.

Ruth M. Hockett (Editor), *loc. cit.*

Marion P. Stevens, *loc. cit.*

Annie E. Moore, *op. cit.*, Ch. ii.

Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker, *loc. cit.*

J. G. Rossman, "The Present Crisis and the Platoon School," *The Platoon School*, Vol. 6 (February, 1932), pp. 10-17.

J. G. Rossman, "Programming the Enriched Curriculum," *Educational Review*, Vol. 71 (April, 1926), pp. 190-196.

The longer daily periods and flexible time allotments make it easier to develop sustained interest in significant themes, units of work, or centers of interest, to develop and exploit pupil interests, and to participate in excursions, construction projects, and other activities which are hardly possible if the day is divided into a series of ten- or twenty-minute periods. Frequently it has been found desirable to reduce the total number of different subject titles appearing on the schedule of recitations, thus building the curriculum around larger and more significant units of work which, in the process of execution, would embody related knowledges and activities. To obtain the total weekly time allotment which is desired for each subject, if many separate subjects are retained, some schools prefer to alternate subjects for the various days of the week, rather than to have daily short periods.

There are two groups of activities for which it may be desirable to establish a systematic daily routine. One group consists of events which concern the other children in the school, such as using the playground, gymnasium, library, shop, or other special rooms, and periods in which the help of special teachers (such as art and music) is used. The second group consists largely of events which relate particularly to the establishment of health habits. This group includes such items as periods for lunches, rest, physical recreation, and lavatory visits.

A free period each day, frequently at the opening of school in the morning, has been found very useful by some teachers. During this time especially pupils are given an opportunity for creative self-expression or to exploit some interests which may have been generated the previous day or at home. Children bring in and prepare, display, or discuss materials they have brought from home or the library. Much has been written about the need for encouraging creative self-expression, but few programs show that school practice has provided for it.

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importance of careful program-making. Programs for different sized schools are illustrated, together with a formula for determining needs and some general observations.

ROSSMAN, J. G., "The Present Crisis and the Platoon School," *The Platoon School*, Vol. 6 (February, 1932), pp. 10-17. Discusses phases of school organization in the light of the economic crisis and reduced budgets. The overcrowded curriculum, the overworked teacher, the overburdened taxpayer, and proposed economies are treated. Six plans for reorganization are illustrated.

CHAPTER VIII

ORGANIZATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

Since the primary justification for the existence of a public school lies in the services rendered to children it may be assumed that all the energies of those directly associated with the educative enterprise in a given community are focused upon the establishment, maintenance, and improvement of the educational experiences provided for the successive groups of children which pass through the schools. Experience has demonstrated the desirability of allocating to various individuals or groups of professional workers specified duties. That is, specialization and division of labor has been applied to the task of administering the program of public education. For example, the work of an assistant superintendent in charge of buildings and finance, or, the work of a department of research and curriculum revision may be highly specialized, yet their services are directed toward the improvement of instruction, using the latter term in a broad, general sense.

One of the most important responsibilities of school management is that of supervising and coördinating the work of the entire personnel of the system.¹ After the educational policies have been determined, or as previously established ones are revised, the energies of the various administrative and supervisory departments, including even the work of those who design school buildings or select and distribute instructional materials, must be articulated so the adopted policies may find expression in classroom instruction.

The task of developing and operating smoothly an organ-

¹ Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Organization and Administration* (Ginn and Co., 1931), p. 297.

ization in which a variety of individual personalities may function effectively, each according to his peculiar abilities and the particular tasks assigned him, yet all striving in an integrated manner toward the attainment of common goals or objectives, is not an easy one. The problems of establishing an effective organization for administration and teaching have become more technical and more scientific. As the school has assumed new obligations or established new types of services to improve the quality of its work, it has usually been necessary to add to the staff individuals qualified to discharge effectively the newly assumed obligations. Perhaps the largest increments in staff have come in the field known as supervision. Even in cities with populations between 10,000 and 25,000 Melby found the typical supervisory staff, including principals and special supervisors, to consist of ten members.²

At an earlier period, when the duties and responsibilities of the superintendent were rather restricted, the term "supervision" had very broad implications.³ The entire range of activities now usually delegated to the superintendent was included within its scope. However, as the duties and responsibilities of the superintendent have increased, and as the field of supervision has developed, the superintendent has been compelled to delegate to others, at least in the larger cities, the responsibility for oversight and direction of certain types of services, particularly that of classroom instruction. While the staff may relieve the superintendent of a considerable portion of the actual supervisory routine, its existence may at the same time confront him with the new problem of effective organization and direction. The mere size of the supervisory staff usually found in these cities creates an organization problem of no mean proportion. If overlapping of effort, conflict

² E. O. Melby, *Organization and Administration of Supervision*, Northwestern University Contributions to Education (Public School Publishing Co., 1929), p. 3.

³ J. L. Pickard, *School Supervision* (D. Appleton and Co., 1890).

of authority, and omission of important activities are to be avoided, responsibilities must be carefully delegated and relationships clearly established. The need for coördination of supervisory activity would readily seem to be apparent if a balanced educational program is to result.⁴

DIFFERENTIATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

The history of supervision shows how in the early period of elementary-school development, supervisory responsibilities were gradually attached to the administrative, clerical, and other duties associated with the office of superintendent of schools.⁵ Thus, from an early period, there was no clear-cut distinction between the administrative duties and what might more logically be called supervisory activities. Although recent professional literature has attempted to clarify the meaning of the term supervision,⁶ and studies have been made showing the distribution of time of various school officials to administration, supervision, and other activities,⁷ it is not always certain that the duties have been properly classified. Whether an activity is administrative or supervisory in character does not depend primarily upon its title, but rather upon its purpose and the manner of its execution. Perhaps it is idle folly to heckle over fine distinctions and rigid classifications since in actual practice it is frequently impossible to separate the administrative aspects from the activities of so-called supervisors, and vice versa. In the last analysis, administration and supervision are complementary activities. The

⁴ E. O. Melby, *op. cit.*, pp. 3-4.

⁵ F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *The Organization of Supervision* (D. Appleton and Co., 1928), Ch. i.

⁶ *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence* (1930), Ch. i.

⁷ *The Elementary School Principalship, Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1928), Ch. v.

supreme objective of each is the improvement of instruction.⁸ If a distinction between these two terms is desired or is found helpful in allocating duties and responsibilities and in defining staff relationships, the general tendency has been to define any and all activities pertaining to the administration of instruction as supervisory.⁹

FACTORS AFFECTING THE ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION

Although school surveys and other professional literature have frequently recommended types of supervisory organization to fit local situations, it has been relatively impossible or unwise to plan forms of organization which would be uniformly applicable in all communities of a given size. Each local situation usually has a variety of factors which are determinants in one way or another of the organization which may be developed and expected to function effectively. As far as the elementary school is concerned, it is usually only one unit in the twelve- or fourteen-grade public school system of the city.¹⁰ As a result one finds many instances in which the supervisory personnel, certain service departments, and even classroom teachers, discharge obligations in both the elementary and the secondary units. It thus becomes difficult to isolate the elementary school and to discuss its organization for the improvement of instruction without encroaching upon a field of work which is beyond the scope of this book.

The form of school organization within a city is frequently an important factor in determining the organization for supervision. A system organized on the K-6-6 plan would likely develop supervisory plans quite different from those found in

⁸ *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, op. cit.*, p. 14.

⁹ F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *op. cit.*, p. 348.

¹⁰ The school law in some states, Illinois for example, permits township high school units to be developed in areas which encompass several elementary school districts. In such instances each elementary district administers education below the ninth grade. Each elementary district, as well as the high school district, is an independent unit.

a city which maintained an 8-4, or a K-7-4, or a K-4-4-4 arrangement, or which confined its services to grades below the ninth. Obviously the size of the community, the internal organization of the school, and the number and size of buildings are also important considerations.¹¹ A school in which departmentalization of instruction is practiced extensively would no doubt command supervisory services of a character quite different from those needed in an institution in which each teacher assumes full responsibility for all the classroom activities of a given grade.¹² Just what these differences in supervisory service should be is seldom clearly understood, yet it seems apparent that each case must be worked out through a careful analysis and study of the particular situation at hand.

The developments which have taken place in the last ten or fifteen years in the organization for school administration have included changes in the status of the elementary-school principal. Prior to 1920 the majority of elementary-school principals spent most of their time in teaching and in administrative and clerical detail. The elementary principalship was not recognized as having any major importance in the general scheme for school administration. Within the last two decades, however, the elementary principal has been given supervisory status.¹³ He has been relieved of a large proportion of his teaching responsibilities and has been encouraged to devote from one-third to one-half of his time to supervisory activities. To him also have been delegated other major responsibilities regarding the organization and administration of his particular school. The essential fact is that the elementary principal has risen from a position of relatively little importance in the general plan of school administration and super-

¹¹ F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *op. cit.*, Ch. viii.

¹² Fred Engelhardt, *op. cit.*, p. 302.

¹³ J. C. Morrison, "The Principalship Develops Supervisory Status," in the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals (1931), pp. 155-162.

vision to a position which carries a variety of major duties and responsibilities. As far as supervisory activities are concerned, the principal finds himself in a situation in which he is supposed to assume some responsibility for the supervision and direction of teaching along with several other members of the staff who also have supervisory functions of one kind or another. The principal must thus find his place in the sum total of supervisory work and must define his relationships to the other supervisors and their work.

To date the organization as well as the procedures and techniques of supervision have been determined in no small measure by the training and experience of both supervisory officers (Table LIII) and the teachers they supervise. The in-

TABLE LIII

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO YEARS OF TRAINING BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL *

YEARS OF TRAIN- ING	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS			NUMBER OF SUPERVISORS			
	Ele- mentary †	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Edu- cation
0	4	3
1	9	1	3	1	2
2	49	4	1	15	12	15	18
3	20	2	2	2	9	6	6
4	43	24	45	11	25	34	22
5	14	13	28	3	2	10	5
6	1	3	1	1	1
7	1	1	1
10	1
Total....	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Median..	3.3	4.7	4.8	3	4.1	4.3	

* From E. O. Melby, *Organization and Administration of Supervision* (Public School Publishing Co., 1939), p. 27.

† Non-teaching principals only.

creasingly higher levels of training required of teachers brings new challenges to the procedures of supervision and may change radically the present concepts of supervision. The route whereby many supervisory officers have come to their present positions raises numerous questions regarding their qualifications for the positions they hold, especially in view of the better trained teachers who are rapidly filling elementary classrooms. The principal's qualifications for supervision rest on experience rather than training. The typical special supervisor has had practically no teaching contact in the elementary school. The special supervisor's teaching, past and present, has been in the secondary school. Her training seems to have been largely content or special subject-matter with little educational theory or practice. The superintendent of schools, too, seems to have had little contact with elementary school supervision previous to his becoming superintendent. Elementary-school principals have training which, in the main, is only slightly better than that of the teachers whom they supervise. In view of these facts it seems that the typical elementary-school system is supervised by a relatively complex organization, the members of which bring to their positions either training or experience, or both, which is often inadequate or ill-adapted to the needs of their highly specialized work.¹⁴

In a dynamic society in which schools, teaching procedures, and curricula¹⁵ are undergoing constant change, an adequate plan of supervision cannot be maintained unless it is a dynamic part of the whole system, unless it is sensitive to changes in various aspects of the work of the schools, and unless it is flexible to permit recasting when important changes are made in the administration of the schools.¹⁶

¹⁴ E. O. Melby, *op. cit.*, pp. 43-44.

¹⁵ *Curriculum Making in Current Practice*, A Conference Report (Evanston, Illinois, Northwestern University, 1932).

¹⁶ Fred Engelhardt, *op. cit.*, p. 304.

THE FUNCTIONS AND PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION

The term "supervision" has been defined in a variety of ways, some of the definitions being rather loose and misleading, thus tending to confuse the issues at hand. A good practical definition of supervision is "the technique of improving the conditions in which more efficient learning takes place." Such a concept of supervision encompasses those activities which have as their primary objective the improvement of teaching and the further education of teachers. No arbitrary lines of distinction are drawn between the duties which are administrative and those which are supervisory because in actual practice many aspects of the so-called supervisory tasks shade into the field of administration, and vice versa.

In the *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence four major functions of supervision are noted, namely, inspection, research, training, and guidance.¹⁷ Inspection is usually interpreted to mean the survey of classroom teaching and the school system as a whole to ascertain how efficiently instruction is being given. Such items as equipment, the means of instruction, the service, the personnel, the pupils, and other items of detail are included for consideration. The method of securing information may be by visit, by report, or by measurement. Efforts are usually made to obtain information about the various phases of school work in as objective and accurate a way as possible. Standard tests, rating schemes, and the various other objective devices now available to teachers and supervisors are employed. Exact information about present conditions in the schools, when viewed in the light of current standards, supplies the basis for impartial evaluations and suggests problems for future investigation and growth. Effective inspection reveals defects and points of particular excellence in instructional procedures and enables the supervisor to diagnose conditions and to discover problems which press for solution.

¹⁷ *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, op. cit.*, pp. 14-18.

Research, as a function of supervision, is a systematic, critical investigation. Its purpose is to discover facts or principles; to clarify and to isolate problems; to collect, organize, and interpret facts; to formulate hypotheses and to appraise their values. Research seeks to be a creative function of supervision. Through it the supervisor seeks to discover opportunities for improvement in materials and methods of instruction; to collect, assemble, and publish available data; to develop tentative standards and objectives; and to experiment with methods and materials of instruction which appear to be superior to those now in use.

The training function of supervision grows out of the effective application of the functions of inspection and research. Inspection and research reveal existing weaknesses and forecast desirable avenues for improvement. A program for improvement can be effected only as those concerned sense the need for improvement and manifest a willingness to examine and to modify their practices. Techniques helpful in assisting teachers to improve may take the form of conferences with individual teachers during which there is free interchange of ideas, meetings with experimental groups of teachers selected for their creative ability, other group meetings of various kinds, visits to classrooms for the purpose of diagnosing teaching difficulties and making suggestions, the distribution of instructional aids, and the organization of extension classes to supplement other training and to serve as one means of in-service training.

The guidance function usually finds its major place after the materials, techniques, and methods of instruction have been evolved through experimentation and research. In order that the results of research and the projected better practices may find expression in classroom teaching, some one must assume the responsibility for the guidance of instruction. Frequently this responsibility is delegated to the building principal, although other supervisory officers may share in the task. The materials of instruction, the physical setting, and

the guidance prerequisite to effective classroom application must be provided for teachers.

To the four major functions of supervision the reader may wish to add others which are not readily classified under the captions listed above. In any event these added functions will probably be related in an important way to the problem of instruction and, if properly carried on, may be an aid in improving instruction. In order that any and all of the functions of supervision may be carried out in a desirable manner much help has been obtained by supervisors from the development and application of general principles under which supervision might proceed. The following is a statement of principles of supervision¹⁸ as formulated by a committee of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction.¹⁹

1. Supervision is philosophic.

- (a) Supervision seeks new truth. It keeps abreast of the leading movements in education. It reaches out beyond the issues of education and seeks to understand the issues of society in which education develops and has its being.
- (b) Supervision continuously evaluates aims and objectives. Nothing is fixed. An ever changing social structure calls for a continuous sifting of materials and scrutiny of values. The attainment of one goal leads but to others. The coördination of teachers' thinking toward the refinement of common ends is the first function of supervision.

2. Supervision is coöperative.

- (a) All supervisory agents work toward common ends. This implies that common ends have been determined through the

¹⁸ *Current Problems of Supervision, Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930), pp. 8-9.

¹⁹ The interested reader may also desire to examine:

Evaluation of Supervision, Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction (1931).

Supervision and the Creative Teacher, Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction (1932).

A. S. Barr, *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision* (D. Appleton and Co., 1931).

refinement that comes only with the conflict of minds. It does not necessarily mean an identity of procedures for attaining these ends, nor does it imply the full satisfaction of all concerned with the ends as stated. It does mean that every supervisory officer of the system is giving his whole self to the attainment of the ends agreed upon until such time as he can convince his fellows that their energies should be redirected.

- (b) Supervision works with teachers toward the solution of mutual problems. This involves the creation of situations in which teachers become aware of their problems and seek assistance in their solution. It eliminates every vestige of dictation or inspection. The question of superiority or inferiority of position does not enter. The teacher turns to the supervisor because the latter has proved his or her capacity to be useful—the divine right of leadership.

3. Supervision is creative.

- (a) Supervision seeks latent talent. It draws out the best in everyone it meets. It encourages initiative, originality, self-reliance, self-expression. It stresses success and lets failure slip into oblivion. It understands that there are many ways of attaining the ultimate goals.
- (b) Supervision creates environment. It seeks a nice balance between the best development of the individual and the greatest good of the social group in which he develops. It constantly shapes the factors of the material environment to harmonize with the goals to be attained.

4. Supervision is scientific.

- (a) Supervision applies the scientific method to its study of the teaching process. It stimulates constructive, critical thinking. It sees in the classrooms of to-day the beginning of a process that will lead to the gradual and constant improvement of generations of men to come. It sees the schools as the world's most powerful agency in refining and improving the thinking process. It looks upon measurement as a means of refining thinking.
- (b) Supervision seeks proof as to its own accomplishment. It seeks to improve its measure of the individual, of the group. It evaluates objectively the results of instruction. It measures achievement in terms of the ability to achieve. It would apply the same objective evaluation to its own efforts that it is gradually learning to apply to the results of teaching.

- (c) Supervision encourages experimentation under proper controls. It refines the processes of trial and error. It seeks constantly objective evidence as to the results of the experimentation.

5. Supervision is effective.

- (a) Supervision helps teachers secure an effective working knowledge of the tools of teaching: courses of study, standard tests, books, instructional materials, equipment, and, beyond this, it seeks to improve the tools themselves.
- (b) Supervision coordinates theory and practice. It realizes that theory must square with facts. While helping teachers to understand theory, it helps them to practice it. It seeks constantly to refine methods and procedures for making theory effective.

THE INTEGRATION OF SUPERVISORY SERVICE

In most school systems which are large enough to have several elementary schools one finds a number of different staff members engaged in doing supervisory work in the same building and coming in contact with the same teachers and pupils. It is not uncommon to find situations in which individual teachers owe supervisory allegiance to a principal, to an assistant or district superintendent, the superintendent, a general supervisor, and to one or more special supervisors. Unless lines of authority and supervisory responsibilities and relationships are carefully worked out, it is easy for all kinds of conflicts to arise. The character of some of these conflicts and differences of opinion, as far as the principal is concerned, is revealed in Table LIV. The essential thing is perhaps not the fact that these differences in belief exist but that in so many instances the conflicts result in harmful effects upon the school, the teachers, and the pupils. Much has been written in professional literature about the desirability of integrating the educational experiences of children and developing integrated personalities. Is it possible for teachers to provide integrated activities and for either teachers or pupils to develop or to maintain integrated personalities if they are constantly

TABLE LIV

CONFLICTS ARISING IN THE SUPERVISORY RELATIONSHIPS INVOLVING THE PRINCIPAL *

	Number of Cities Reporting Existence of Conflict	Number of Cities Reporting Conflict Harmful in Effects	Number of Times Existence of Con- flict Was Reported	Number of Times Conflict Reported Harmful in Effects
I. Conflicts between beliefs of the superintendent and principals:				
1. Superintendent believes he should make suggestions directly to teachers, while principals believe superintendent should make suggestions through principal only, or vice versa	5	5	5	5
2. Superintendent believes in maintaining definite promotion standards, while principals believe such standards should be flexible or vice versa	11	9	13	12
3. Superintendent believes teachers should conform to certain methods, while principals believe in encouraging originality in methods of teaching, or vice versa	11	11	17	17
II. Conflicts between the beliefs of general supervisors and principals:				
1. Supervisor believes she should make suggestions directly to teachers, while principal believes all suggestions to teachers should be made through principals, or vice versa	22	9	25	12
2. Supervisor believes in rigid adherence to the course of study, while principal believes he should be permitted to make adaptations to the needs of his own school, or vice versa	22	14	30	17
3. Supervisor believes in emphasizing results as measured by tests, while principal believes broader outcomes are more important, or vice versa	24	12	25	13
III. Conflicts between the beliefs of special supervisors and principals:				
1. Special supervisor believes she should make suggestions directly to teachers, while principal believes all suggestions should come through the principal, or vice versa	24	18	30	20
2. Supervisor believes that in music, for example, ability to sing or play is the objective to be emphasized, while principal believes in stressing appreciation, or vice versa	20	13	38	18
3. Supervisor believes she should construct the course of study for teachers, while principal believes teachers should participate in course of study construction, or vice versa	21	13	20	15

* Adapted from Tables I-III, in *Effective Instructional Leadership, Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association* (1933), pp. 22-28.

harassed by widely different emphases and points of view on the part of supervisory leaders, each of whom may desire to effect his particular beliefs through his special subject or field? There is apparently great need for a critical examination of the integration, or lack of it, of current supervisory leadership.

THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS

The problem of integration of supervisory service leads immediately to the question of staff relationships and the allocation of duties to the respective officers who share the responsibility for the administration of an instructional program. The various influences which have been important factors in the development of supervision²⁰ have not operated in the same manner in all communities. In many cases, and perhaps in most instances, the organization for supervision has "grown" rather than developed according to sound principles and experimentally determined procedures. Each school system has built up a plan which was deemed appropriate and feasible in the light of the training, experience, and personalities of the teachers and the various supervisory officers who constituted the educational staff. As progress has been made in the science of teaching, administration, and supervision, and in the training of teachers and administrative officers, serious problems involving duplication of effort, conflict of authority (Table LV), unbalanced emphasis upon subjects offered, and differences in both supervisory and general educational philosophy have arisen. These latter issues have been extensively discussed in other sources and cannot be duplicated here.²¹ It is hoped that helpful suggestions for the solution of problems pertaining to the interrelationship of supervisory officers which are peculiar to a local school may be

²⁰ F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *op. cit.*, Ch. i.

²¹ *Ibid.*, Chs. iii, iv, and v.

E. O. Melby, *op. cit.*, Ch. iv.

TABLE LV
DUAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF AGENTS AS SHOWN FROM THE REPLIES OF
FIFTY-SEVEN PRINCIPALS *

Agents Responsible for Performing the Same Activities	Number of Cases	Number of Possi- bilities	Per Cent Column II Is of Column III
I	II	III	IV
1. Principal, General Supervisor ...	207	652	31
2. Principal, Special Supervisor ...	168	626	26
3. Principal, General Supervisor, Spe- cial Supervisor ..	137	607	22
4. General Supervisor, Special Super- visor	42	357	11
5. Principal, Superintendent.....	22	225	9
6. Principal, Superintendent, General Supervisor	13	197	6
7. Principal, Superintendent, Special Supervisor	24	396	6
8. Principal, Assistant Principal.....	10	177	5

* From *Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1920), p. 169.

obtained from the discussion of the organization plans which follow:

Case 1. Organization for supervision in a city of 12,000 population. The plan of organization represented in Figure 12 was found in operation at the time a comprehensive survey of instruction and supervision was undertaken. It is not unique and similar plans could no doubt be found in many cities of about the same size. It is presented here to illustrate staff relationships.

When the survey was undertaken the school system employed the following supervisory staff:

Superintendent of schools	Art supervisor
High school principal	Music supervisor
Junior high school principal	Penmanship supervisor
Elementary school principals (4)	Physical education supervisor
Elementary grade supervisor	School nurses (2)

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The following statements represent a brief summary of the responsibilities of these staff members:

The Art supervisor taught two hours per week in Grades 7 and 8. She also taught most of the art in the elementary schools, teaching the actual class-room work in art as well as for demonstration purposes.

Because of the change in the method of teaching handwriting, the penmanship supervisor taught all the penmanship.

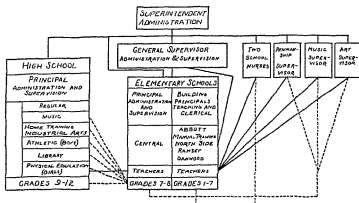


FIG. 12. A PLAN OF ORGANIZATION FOUND IN OPERATION IN A CITY OF 12,000 POPULATION.

From Fred Engelhardt and E. O. Melby, *The Supervisory Organization and the Instructional Program*, Albert Lea, Minnesota, p. 8.

The music supervisor taught the equivalent of two hours a week in high school. The greater part of her time was available for the elementary schools. The high school musical organizations were in charge of a director.

One half of the time of the physical education supervisor was available for the grades. Physical education classes for boys in the seventh and eighth grades and in high school were in charge of a special teacher who was also the athletic coach.

One nurse gave practically full time to attendance work, while a second nurse was free for clinical duties, health supervision and control.

Elementary principals taught full time. Their other duties were largely clerical.

The high school and junior high school principals had no teaching duties.

The elementary grade supervisor was responsible for the regular work in elementary schools. She carried a number of administrative responsibilities in addition to her supervising duties.

The plan of organization, when the study was undertaken, is set forth more clearly in Figure 12. One of the outstanding characteristics revealed in a study of the existing situation was the lack of coordination among the various staff members associated in carrying on the supervision in the school. Each supervisor seemed to plan an independent program of activity unrelated to the work done by the other members of the staff. The following illustrations are cases in point. The elementary grade supervisor was responsible for the improvement of instruction in the elementary schools. Yet she had no authority over the work of any of the other staff members who operated in this field. In physical education and health, there were four staff members, all planning independent lines of activity, and evidently there was no one in the system to coordinate these services.

The results of such a situation are evidenced in a number of ways. Teachers complained that assignments made by certain members of the staff were so heavy that they were unable to carry out the activities planned by other supervisors. The things being done in the special subjects, such as art, music, and physical education, tend under such conditions to become a series of isolated activities which may have little or no correlation with the regular instruction in the school.

Figure 12 also shows that teachers in the elementary schools were responsible to at least seven different supervisory officers, all of whom visit classes, offer suggestions on teaching, or in other ways attempt direction or guidance of the work in the elementary schools. No doubt each of these supervisors has a program which has been presented to teachers for development. In the existing organization some of these programs were being developed simultaneously. If it is desirable to attempt the improvement of instruction in one subject at a time, as authorities in the field point out, then it is difficult to see how this principle can be realized under the existing conditions.²³

During the progress of the survey extensive inventories were made of the supervisory practices used in the schools, the degree of responsibility that teachers believed was theirs

²³ Fred Engelhardt and E. O. Melby, *The Supervisory Organization and the Instructional Program*, Albert Lea, Minnesota, *Bulletin of the University of Minnesota. College of Education* (1928) no. 7-9.

for certain educational agencies or activities, the supervisory officers to whom teachers felt they were responsible regarding various aspects of their work, and an evaluation of supervisory activities by teachers and supervisors. The data thus assembled formed the basis for the following analysis of prac-

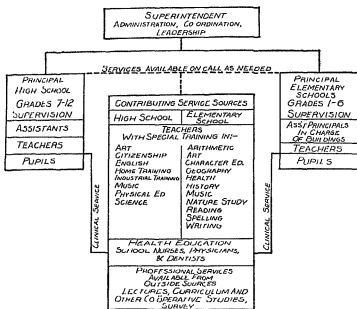


FIG. 13. A SUGGESTED FORM OF ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION IN A CITY OF 12,000 POPULATION.

From Fred Engelhardt and E. O. Melby, *The Supervisory Organization and the Instructional Program*. Albert Lea, Minnesota, p. 18.

tice and a proposed plan of organization (Fig. 13) which might serve as a goal in the process of reorganization.

Responsibilities for important school functions were not specifically allocated; duties not clearly defined.

The members of the supervisory staff were not organizing their efforts in the most effective manner but were giving large amounts of time to non-supervisory work.

In the judgment of teachers in many respects a rather meager and desultory program of supervision was being carried on.

A number of very worth-while supervisory activities and devices were available which were very little used.

The efforts of the several staff members were not effectively coordinated, resulting in lack of a unified program.

The whole supervisory procedure in the special subjects of art, music, penmanship, health, and physical education was in need of thorough study.

To establish a basis for an organization through which the above principles can be carried out, Figure 13 has been prepared. The greater simplicity of the latter plan over the one presented in Figure 12 is quite apparent. A teacher in this situation (Fig. 13) is directly responsible to a single administrative and supervisory officer, the principal. The elementary school supervisor in a system the size of Albert Lea might be called the principal of elementary schools. Her relationship to the several buildings should be similar to that of the assistant superintendent in charge of elementary education in larger cities. She receives instructions from one official only, as to the work to be done; there is no conflict of authority.

The superintendent of schools in such a plan assumes a better relationship to his system. He works through a minimum number of associates. He has time to study the problems of classification and organization. In order to guide the efforts of the principals better, he continues to make visits to classrooms and schools and studies the situations as they exist. He coordinates the work done in the several organization units, and sees that the educational program is being carried out efficiently, economically, and with dispatch. If he has suggestions to make to some individual teacher, he brings it to the attention of the principal who has full authority to act as he thinks best.²³

Case 2. Classroom teachers assume full responsibility for all subjects. Figure 14 presents a schematic arrangement for supervision in a school system in which classroom teachers are assumed to be as well trained in special as in academic subjects. This is perhaps the most widely favored plan.

Under such an organization the supervisor does not "show the teacher how to teach," but assumes leadership in various activities designed to improve teaching. Such activities may be individual or

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 17-18.

coöperative. All the members of the teaching staff may participate. Among these teachers are many with specialized training. Theoretically one might assume each teacher to have a specialized contribution to make to the supervisory program. Teachers already in the system might be encouraged to get such special training. New teachers might be selected with this special training as a qualification. The plan of organization assumes that any teacher or supervisor may

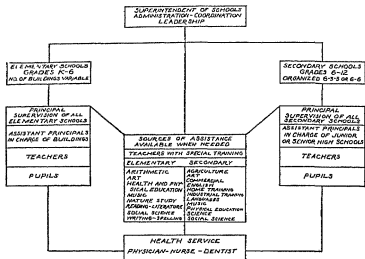


FIG. 14. A FORM OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION BASED UPON COMPLETE RESPONSIBILITY OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS FOR ALL SUBJECTS, SPECIAL AND REGULAR.

From E. O. Melby, *Organization and Administration of Supervision*, p. 137.

be called on to assist if necessary. High school teachers may be asked to assist in elementary school activities and vice versa.

Under this form of organization the classroom teacher is directly responsible to only one supervisory officer. She may go to many others who may render assistance but they are without authority to tell the teacher what to do. There can be no conflicting orders given. The teacher will not be placed in the position of having to teach according to one method for the supervisor of music, and another method for the principal. To be sure this type of organization assumes considerable initiative on the part of teachers for efforts in the im-

provement of their own teaching. It would seem, however, that this greater initiative should be one of the concomitants of higher training on the part of teachers. It seems reasonable that increase in the ability of teachers to assume initiative for instructional improvement will make necessary a modification in supervisory procedures.²⁴

Case 3. Complete specialization of teaching. In view of the large amount of departmental teaching found in elemen-

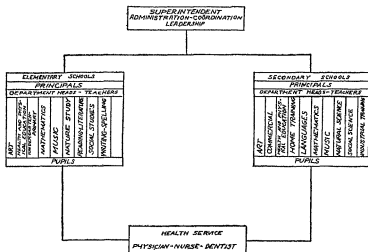


FIG. 15. A FORM OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION BASED UPON DEPARTMENTALIZATION OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL AND HIGH-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION.

From E. O. Melby, *Organization and Administration of Supervision*, p. 139.

tary schools to-day it would seem appropriate to picture a form of organization (Fig. 15) which is based upon complete specialization of all teaching in the elementary school above certain grades. The extent to which a plan of this kind can be effected will depend in large measure upon the professional training and interest of teachers and the professional leader-

²⁴ E. O. Melby, *op. cit.*, p. 141.

ship within the system. The essential features of the last three plans (Figs. 13, 14, and 15) are the avoidance of conflicts in authority, centralized responsibility, the need for broad training and leadership of a high type, and the recognition of the principal as the only authoritative staff officer within each school.

Case 4. Organization in large cities. The principles of organization apply in a general way irrespective of the size of the system. The manner of application of general principles will differ somewhat depending upon the size of the city, the administrative policies, and the personnel of the staff. General statements regarding types of supervisory organizations in large city school systems are usually not significant.²⁵ The delegation of duties and responsibilities through a series of from three to five or more administrative officers of various ranks frequently makes it difficult to have detailed supervisory policies and techniques reach the classroom teachers in accordance with their original intent. Invariably supervisory service within a large city is allocated by geographical areas or school levels, such as primary grades, elementary grades, etc., so that the organization for the services immediately available to a particular school is not so different from the plans for supervision found in smaller cities. Figure 16 shows the proposed administrative and supervisory organization for the Chicago schools.²⁶

A study of Figure 16 will show that a distinction has been made between line officers and staff officers. The line of authority proposed runs from the office of the superintendent of schools through that of the deputy superintendent, through the office of the assistant superintendents and district superintendents to principals and other administrative officers in charge of particular schools or activities. The staff, on the other hand, is thought of as rendering service to any part of the school system upon the call of the administrative officer or by designation of the superintendent or his deputy. One group of staff officers has the responsibility for the supervision of teaching.

²⁵ Fred Engelhardt, *op. cit.*, p. 340.

²⁶ Diagrams of forms of organization for other cities may be found in F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *op. cit.*, Ch. vii.

The staff is divided into a number of service bureaus whose major functions are to conduct inquiries and to furnish information to the superintendent, to assistant and district superintendents, and to school principals. The studies made by the several bureaus have to do with the efficiency of the service as it is now operated and with scientific inquiries which would seek to discover the most satisfactory procedures in teaching, in the organization of curricula, in the organization of school units, in the financing of the schools, in the housing of children, and the like.

The supervisory staff should be thought of as responsible for the training of teachers in service and the general oversight and development of the subjects in which they have special ability. Their work should be directed by the superintendent and his deputy. They may, in many cases, be assigned for particular services to the assistant superintendents in charge of elementary and secondary schools. It should be possible, however, for district superintendents and principals to call upon these supervisors or any one of their assistants for service to teachers in need of advice or in the development of the courses of study offered in individual schools. Supervisory officers should come into the school through the office of the principal and should work under his general direction.

Good administration requires that the principal in charge of a school organize his program in such manner as to coördinate the work of the specialists who may be made available to his teachers. To propose that supervisors come into the school without control from the principal's office is to invite a chaotic situation in which the supervisor with most energy will exercise undue influence over the teaching or the curriculum of the school. No one should hold the office of principal in an elementary or secondary school who is not competent to work in coöperation with his superior officers charged with general administrative and supervisory responsibility and with special supervisors who are charged with responsibility for the work done in special subjects of instruction.²⁷

THE PRINCIPAL AS SUPERVISOR

An analysis of the above diagrams of the plans of the organization for supervision reveals the fact that the elementary school principal has been recognized as an important cog in

²⁷ G. D. Strayer, "The Administration of the Schools," *Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois* (Division of Field Studies, Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), pp. 21-23.

the general scheme for school administration and supervision. Historically few supervisory duties were assigned to the elementary principal since his job was conceived as administrative and clerical in character.²⁸ In recent years, however, the proper place and functions of the elementary principal have been studied more carefully and as a result his administrative and especially his supervisory duties have been increased and more clearly defined. The chief change in the functions of the elementary principal has come in the field of supervision. From the recommendations of school surveys, the opinions of superintendents and educational specialists, and from other professional literature may be gleaned numerous statements which point out the need for the integration of supervision and recommendations that all types of supervisory service be coordinated through the office of the school principal.²⁹ The elementary principal thus finds himself an integral part of the supervisory program and thus must plan his work and his activities so that all the major duties of his position may receive proper attention.

The scope of the principal's work is extensive. Analyses of the activities of elementary-school principals have revealed two hundred or more distinct types of duties performed by them.³⁰ A review of the research in this field shows that the

²⁸ "The Development of the Elementary School Principalship," in the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals (1928), Ch. ii.

²⁹ F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *op. cit.*, p. 97.

E. P. Cubberley, *Public School Administration, Revised* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929), p. 294.

J. L. Horn, *The American Elementary School* (The Century Co., 1923), p. 100.

F. P. Graves, *The Administration of American Education* (The Macmillan Co., 1932), p. 326.

J. R. McGaughy, "Teaching and Supervision in the Elementary Grades," *Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois*, Vol. III (Division of Field Studies, Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), p. 139.

³⁰ *The Elementary School Principalship, op. cit.*, Chs. iv, v, vi, and vii.

principal's work is extensive indeed, covering such major items as classroom management, supervisory assistance, class control and management, general management, teacher and pupil personnel, supervision of janitorial service, clerical duties associated with supplies, repairs, reports, and records, and frequently some teaching.

It is not surprising that many principals have found their time and energies engrossed in administrative duties and clerical routine, and have found very little, if any, time for supervision, which the profession recognizes as one of the most important functions of the principal. The reader will no doubt agree with the Department of Elementary School Principals that "good administration precedes good supervision"³¹ and that "good supervisory practices should follow upon sound administration."³² The effective organization of administrative matters, including office management and the budgeting of time, is essential if adequate time is to be found for supervision. Consequently, executive ability of a high type must be applied freely at all times if the many problems relating to the supervision of instruction are to be met.³³

THE PRINCIPAL IN A PROGRAM OF SUPERVISION

The types of organizations for supervision which are commonly found in city school systems, some of which have been described in previous sections, provide that several different individuals perform supervisory work within the same building and make contacts with the same teachers. The elementary principal is one of these individuals. Since heavy supervisory responsibilities are placed upon the principal, as well as upon the other supervisory officers, many questions arise as to the

³¹ *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals (1930), p. 145.

³² *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals (1931), p. 141.

³³ Office management, budgeting time, and other aspects of administration are treated in subsequent chapters.

specific place the principal is to occupy in the program of supervision. Is the principal to be the final supervisory authority in each school? What status do directors of instruction, general supervisors, assistant superintendents, or the superintendent assume upon entering a particular school? How may the work of these various supervisors and principals be coördinated so as to make a unified attack on classroom problems?³⁴ It would seem that the principal has specific and yet somewhat different relationships to the superintendent or assistant superintendents, the general supervisors or directors of instruction, and the special supervisors.

As a line officer in the administration of the schools the elementary principal has a definite type of relationship to the superintendent of schools and his assistants. The principal of a school and the superintendent of a school system hold somewhat complementary positions.³⁵ The superintendent is primarily responsible for the successful conduct of the whole system of schools while the principal is primarily responsible for the successful conduct of a single school or a group of related schools. In the process of conducting the affairs of the school system the superintendent, together with his assistants, conference groups, and the board of education, will formulate policies and plans which are to be carried out in the schools of the city. In the administration of these policies the superintendent will call upon each principal to execute such plans within his own school. Obviously many of these centrally formulated plans or programs will deal with the instructional phases of school work or with administrative practices which directly or indirectly affect instruction. The principal thus finds that a certain proportion of his time—sometimes a large proportion of his time—is taken up by administering in his own school the policies and plans of the superintendent. Many

³⁴ "The Principal as a Supervisor," *Research Bulletin*, The National Education Association, Vol. 7, No. 5 (1929), p. 283.

³⁵ E. P. Cubberley, *The Principal and His School* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1902), p. 12.

of the activities which are performed in the course of this work are strictly supervisory in character. It is clear, therefore, that a certain portion of the principal's supervisory work aims to execute plans formulated in the central office.

If the school system employs general supervisors such as "primary supervisor," "intermediate-grade supervisor," or "general supervisor," the principal's relationship to them is somewhat different from his relationship to the superintendent. Although the general supervisors may come with some-what of the authority of the superintendent himself, their attention is centered largely upon the more strictly instructional aspects of school work. Usually these general supervisors bring to their work a broad background of professional training and experience which makes it possible for them to give expert assistance in the interpretation of courses of study and the objectives and materials of instruction. The fact that they have occasion to visit extensively in the schools of the city enables them to view classroom instruction, teacher difficulties, and pupil progress and achievement from a broader point of view than the principal may be able to do. The principal thus has occasion to discuss the problems in his own school with one who can view the work in a particular school in terms of the city as a whole. Frequently the supervisor may recognize and call to the attention of the principal certain problems which had escaped him. If the principal and the general supervisor can engage frequently in friendly, frank discussion of professional problems, the principal, or perhaps both of them, may learn much of value. Certainly the principal should utilize every opportunity to secure information and assistance from the general supervisor regarding the problems in his own building.

Much of what has been said regarding the coöperative relationships between the principal and general supervisors will apply also for supervisors of special subjects, such as art, music, penmanship, and physical education. Because the latter types of supervisors are each concerned with a narrow

phases of the curriculum the character of their work and their contacts with teachers and principals are likely to be quite different from those of general supervisors. Special supervisors are more likely to overemphasize the subject of their particular interest and to make requests of teachers and pupils which are quite out of proportion to the importance of the subject in the curriculum. The very fact that they have been brought in as specialists in particular subjects gives them certain prerogatives which may lead to embarrassing situations unless staff relationships and supervisory responsibilities are clearly defined. As with general supervisors, special supervisors may render great service and be of much help to the principal. The principal should plan definitely how to use all types of supervisors to the best advantage.³⁰ This planning is a coöperative undertaking between the principal and the supervisor, such coöperation to be based on the needs of the school as determined by both officials.

The extent to which supervisory officers of various kinds work within buildings independent of the principal or under the direction and authority of the principal varies considerably from one school system to another. It is generally conceded, however, that the most desirable situation results if supervisors come under the professional supervision of the principal and work through the principal while they are in his building. Special teachers too, while working in a particular building, should be regarded as the regular teachers are and should be subject to the same regulations and supervision as are the other teachers. In the organization and administration of a school the principal should be in control, and changes in organization should not be made by supervisors without the consent of the principal, and would best be made by his specific request.

³⁰ A. S. Gist, *The Administration of an Elementary School* (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1928), p. 193.

THE SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Irrespective of the exact character of the supervisory organization in a particular city, the elementary-school principal is generally recognized as a supervisory officer. The tendency in the reorganization of school administration is to delegate larger administrative and supervisory responsibilities to the principal. Professional literature is quite consistent in recognizing the professional status of the elementary principal and in recommending that teaching principals devote approximately 35 per cent of their time to supervision and that non-teaching principals give about 50 per cent of their time to activities classed as supervisory in character. It is thus essential that the principal study his job thoroughly and plan his work carefully so that he may find the needed time for supervision.

The problems and questions regarding instruction and the professional leadership of teachers that are presented to principals are extensive in scope. Table LVI shows the variety and character of the problems presented to principals by classroom teachers. If the principal is going to make the most of the opportunities for exerting professional leadership which come to him as the head of a school and as a supervisory officer, he must prepare himself to be a leader of teachers and to conduct his supervisory activities on a high professional plane. It is difficult to outline specific things which a principal ought to do to qualify himself for effective supervisory leadership because conditions vary a great deal from one individual to another.³⁷ The following list, taken from the *Eighth Year-book* of the Department of Superintendence, suggests what a supervisor should know and be able to do.³⁸ A comparison of one's own knowledges and abilities with the items in this list should be helpful.

³⁷ The professional status and training of principals is discussed at some length in Chap. XVI.

³⁸ *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, op. cit.*, p. 211.

TABLE LVI

PROBLEMS PRESENTED BY CLASSROOM TEACHERS TO PRINCIPALS OF CITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS *

Problems Pertaining To	Frequency	Problems Pertaining To	Frequency
1. <i>Aims and Methods of Teaching</i>		<i>c. Interpretation.....</i>	1
<i>a. Interpretation of objectives.....</i>	1	<i>d. Provision.....</i>	24
<i>b. Developing social traits through pupil participation.....</i>	9	<i>e. Suggestions concerning use.....</i>	3
<i>c. Helping pupils evaluate their own work.....</i>	3	3. <i>Classroom Organization</i>	
<i>d. Desirable methods....</i>	39	<i>a. The economic use of time and effort.....</i>	4
<i>e. Developing integrated units of subject-matter ..</i>	..	<i>b. The economic use of materials.....</i>	2
<i>f. Criticism of teaching observed.....</i>	2	<i>c. The organization of pupil groups.....</i>	8
<i>g. Observation upon request..</i>	12	<i>d. Teacher and pupil responsibility.....</i>	2
<i>h. Classroom demonstration for teachers.....</i>	3	4. <i>Professional Growth in Service</i>	
<i>i. Diagnosis of teaching difficulties</i>	16	<i>a. Constructive teacher meetings.....</i>	1
<i>j. Evaluation of outcomes of instruction</i>	9	<i>b. Capitalizing best practices of teachers.....</i>	7
<i>k. Use of standard objective measurements....</i>	14	<i>c. Coöperative curriculum revision.....</i>	1
<i>l. Use of informal objective measurements....</i>	1	<i>d. Professional growth, advancement.....</i>	2
<i>m. Individual needs and difficulties.....</i>	97	<i>e. Experimentation... ..</i>	6
<i>n. Adaptation to pupil needs.....</i>	11	<i>f. Improvement of limitations—professional and personal.....</i>	..
2. <i>Instructional Materials, Supplies and Equipment</i>		5. <i>Articulation of Coordinating Agencies.....</i>	9
<i>a. Selection..</i>	11	6. <i>Administrative Features of Supervision.....</i>	66
<i>b. Preparation.....</i>	8	Total.....	371

* From *Current Problems of Supervisors, Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction (1930)*, pp. 224-225.

The Supervisor Must Know:

- The science and philosophy of education.
- The principles, common problems, and accepted procedures of school supervision.
- The principles, problems, and accepted procedures of school administration.
- The principles of general method or pedagogy, with perhaps some familiarity with special methods in certain fields.
- The psychology of learning, of childhood, of adolescence. General social psychology.
- The accepted procedures of research: statistical, laboratory, group experimental.
- The theory underlying the various uses of standard tests and scales. The principles of test construction.
- The present curriculum problem, methods of attack, types of courses being developed.
- School and child hygiene.
- Certain training other than professional which will not be listed here.
- Methods and technic of child accounting—pupil personnel work and guidance, including school progress and age-grade charts.
- Principles underlying leadership and coöperation—how to get on with people without friction—social intelligence.
- The evidence and findings of scientific studies of method.

The Supervisor Must Be Able to:

- Confer with various types of individuals in such way as to accomplish purposes.
- Confer with various types of groups, organize and direct conferences and meetings in such way as to accomplish purposes.
- Do long-time planning: of supervisory activities, remedial teaching, and improvement in service.
- Demonstrate good teaching procedure, that is, in terms of general method.
- Analyze objectively observed teaching procedure, and organize intelligent critical discussions thereof.
- Construct and use reliable objective standards for the evaluation of teaching, the evaluation of texts, or of supplies.
- Secure the coöperation of individuals and groups in the foregoing and other activities.
- Construct brief analytical bibliographies and reviews of the recent periodicals and books.
- Write and circulate well organized supervisory bulletins.
- Plan and carry on research and direct others in research (in curriculum reconstruction, experimental teaching, development of information tests, etc.)
- Carry on testing programs, either for the lay public or the teaching body.

Keep clear and adequate records of his own activities, a filing system.

Develop teacher morale and professional spirit.

Keep up with modern developments in education, which means that he must be familiar with the sources of new ideas, such as experimental schools, professional monographs, and periodicals.

Speak clearly and easily before lay or professional audiences.

In order that the principal may discharge effectively his supervisory responsibilities, it is essential that he have a thorough background for supervision. Part of this background may be obtained through professional courses, reading, conferences, and so on, while a part of it must be obtained on the job. The particular setting into which the supervisory work of the principal must fit is determined by the conditions in the local school. Supervisory activities will be selected and shaped in terms of the needs in the school. Progressive theory holds that a major responsibility of the principal is to adjust the school to the local community. The principal will thus desire to familiarize himself with the factors in the community, both positive and negative, which may influence the work of the school and the out-of-school life of the child. A large variety of community organizations and institutions are frequently present and may be enlisted to coöperate with the school in constructive ways.

Other elements in the principal's background for supervision are:

1. His knowledge of the curriculum, its purposes, content, organization, needed revisions, the effectiveness and desirability of recent revisions, and its application in his own school.

2. His knowledge of the policies of the superintendent and the

TABLE LVII

ITEMS OF PRINCIPALS' SUPERVISORY AID RATED "VERY HELPFUL" BY 30 PER CENT OR MORE OF TEACHERS *

Item	Per Cent of Teachers
1. Help in obtaining materials of instruction, equipment, and supplies	65.5
2. Constructive teachers' meetings	56.9
3. Suggestions concerning individual pupil problems	55.9
4. Helpful advice concerning individual needs and difficulties	54.5
5. Experimentation by teachers encouraged	51.5
6. Constructive criticism of teaching observed	50.0
7. Suggestions concerning organization of pupil groups	44.5
8. Interpretation of aims and objectives	41.2
9. Suggestions for developing through pupil participation such social traits as initiative and self-control	41.2
10. Suggestions concerning economic use of time and effort	39.5
11. Suggestions concerning desirable methods	39.5
12. Diagnosis of teaching difficulties	38.5
13. Evaluation of results of instruction	38.5
14. Suggestions for developing worth-while pupil activities	36.9
15. Suggestions concerning use of equipment and supplies	35.9
16. Suggestions as to professional study, advancement in service	32.9
17. Suggestions concerning economic use of materials	32.5
18. Interpretation of course of study, outlines, etc	31.3
19. Help in evaluating pupil activities	31.2

* From the *Third Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association (1930), pp. 183-184.

extent to which local schools are to make adaptations of accepted plans.

3. His knowledge of parents, their economic and social status, and their attitudes toward the school.

4. His knowledge of the pupils in the school, their abilities, achievements, and progress.

5. His knowledge about the teachers, their training, their difficulties and strengths in teaching, and their professional outlook.

6. His knowledge of the school plant and how it may be used most effectively to house the most desirable educational program.³⁹

In the process of studying his own school and in projecting and carrying out a supervisory program the principal will use a variety of supervisory techniques and activities, such as classroom visitation, individual and group conferences, demonstration teaching, reports from teachers, teachers' meetings, measuring pupil abilities and achievements, making age-grade and progress studies, directing or making case studies, and so on. Many of the things the principal will do may be classified as fact-finding activities which bear only indirectly upon supervision. Many of the procedures may be in themselves administrative, clerical, or of a research character. But the interpretation and use of the facts discovered may result in the highest type of supervision. No doubt all principals will be eager to engage in those types of supervisory activities which are most helpful to teachers. In Table LVII are summarized nineteen types of supervisory aid given by principals which teachers have judged as very helpful. Obviously no list of "best practices" can be laid down since circumstances differ so greatly from one school to another.⁴⁰ Each principal will

³⁹ This list of items in the principal's background for supervision was summarized from "The Principal as Supervisor," *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 7, No. 5 (1929), pp. 297-308.

⁴⁰ For other summaries of the supervisory activities of principals see:

"The Principal at Work on His Problems," *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association, Vol. 9, No. 2 (March, 1931).

The Principal and Supervision, *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association (1931).

need to analyze and evaluate his own activities in terms of the objectives of his supervisory program and the conditions under which it is applied. Basically, supervision revolves around the teacher. If what the principal does helps the teacher to do better work with her pupils and helps the teacher to grow professionally, then the supervision may be judged good and constructive.

As the principal proceeds with his supervisory work it is essential that he be critical at all times of his own activities. A supervisor who is not growing professionally and is not striving constantly to raise the quality of his professional services can hardly be expected to exert leadership and to stimulate growth on the part of those supervised. The professional literature on supervision is replete with stimulating suggestions and ideas regarding supervisory techniques and ways of evaluating one's supervisory activities. Principals should be students of supervision and should be conversant with the literature in this field. As supervisory programs are planned by the superintendent and his staff the principal will then be prepared to map out the course of action which he proposes to follow to help in the application of the educational policies. Frequently such supervisory plans of the principal are submitted to the superintendent for suggestion and approval. At the conclusion of the project the results are checked, the activities evaluated, and the reports sent to the central offices. Principals who are alive to their job will not postpone supervisory work until a project is suggested from the superintendent's office or carry on the intermittent type of supervision which is called into action only when the central administrative staff has a program to be carried through. The professional elementary principal will study constantly the needs of his school, teachers, and pupils and will initiate his own supervisory programs and plans to improve the educational services in his building.

ILLUSTRATIVE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL SUPERVISORY PROGRAMS

No standard rules of procedure or a stock list of problems which need supervisory attention and which elementary principals should follow can be provided. Within each school the supervisory work of the principal should be determined by the needs in the particular school. It is sometimes helpful, however, to observe or to read about the ways in which other principals have undertaken to solve their problems. Occasionally many suggestions that may be useful in one's own situation can be gathered. It is with this thought in mind that the following illustrations of supervisory programs carried out by elementary principals are given.

CASE 1. SUPERVISORY PROJECT IN SOCIAL SCIENCE IN GRADES 5A
AND 6A ⁴¹

During the year 1930-1931 the Bureau of Curriculum, Chicago Public Schools, directed the attention of supervisors in elementary schools to the values of an activity curriculum in the development of interests, attitudes, and appreciations as essential elements in learning. Social science suggested itself as an opportune field for the enlargement of the child's world and the promotion of activities through which he might come to understand his universe and to develop worthy social attitudes and appreciations. A tentative mimeographed outline in social science for the intermediate grades, forwarded to all Chicago schools, suggested a semester schedule composed of larger units and challenged principals to experiment with classes directed by capable, ambitious, progressive teachers who were willing to initiate and forward projects that would be essential to the development of an activity program.

Upon receipt of the outline from the Bureau of Curriculum the principal decided to do what she could to secure in her school the kind of teaching suggested by the new curriculum. It was apparent that the topic or unit plan required the location and arrangement of source material on the part of the pupils. For this new purpose the assignment of lessons from a single text book would be inadequate. The passive pupil type of recitation would yield to active pupil tech-

⁴¹ Courtesy of Beatrice Hyman, principal of Stone Elementary School, Chicago, Illinois.

niques. The teacher-conducted lesson would be regarded as a fundamental weakness to be corrected by introducing pupil-managed discussion that would foster normal curiosity, initiative, independent thinking, and suspended judgment. Several major problems presented themselves for solution before the desired objective could be obtained: (1) Formulation of a definite philosophy, the whole-hearted acceptance of the new point of view by the faculty, and unerring adherence to the fundamental theory as a guide in their teaching; (2) application of that philosophy in the lesson plans and procedures. This would involve a change from the traditional method and factual descriptive content curriculum to the new method and curriculum.

For the direction of the learning process during the period of transition, constant guidance, suggestion, caution and encouragement were essential in introducing the new course of study in the Social Studies. Discussion and evaluation of novel practices that were issuing from the new theory became the order of the day. Emphasis on the unit organization of the new outline directed the attention of the teachers to opportunities afforded by the topic arrangement. Important among the supervisory activities by which the plans were forwarded were the following:

1. Teachers' meetings directed toward improvement in teaching technique through coöperative discussion. Contributions came from individual members of the staff finally resulting in a clear statement of the school's philosophy, in the formulation of definite goals and suggested procedures and activities, and in the announcement of various courses in professional study presented in the university extension service. Regular meetings were scheduled for the second and fourth Mondays of the calendar month, the topics to be discussed being stated in bulletins during the first and third weeks. At the request of the principal definite study units were assigned to faculty members for report. Each report was followed by an open forum discussion.

2. Encouragement of teachers to pursue professional courses while in service. The teacher of the fifth grade enrolled in graduate courses in the teaching of social science with Prof. Hill of the University of Chicago, in which she was given opportunity and direction in the formulation of larger teaching units in the field of History. The teacher of the sixth grade likewise undertook college work in social science, majoring in history. All members of the Stone faculty attended a series of discussions on pupil-managed learning led by division super-

intendent, James E. McDade. These discussions were designed to clarify the new philosophy and direct the adoption of new teaching techniques to the large memberships of public school classes.

3. Class visitation. The introduction of the new outline in social science provided a common basis on which teachers, pupils, and the principal could get together to work out their common problems. To assist in observation and in checking activities and materials, and to evaluate tentative outcomes, the principal used a checking scheme devised by Mott and published in one of the yearbooks on supervision. The objective in the minds of the teachers and the principal was to give expression to the philosophy underlying the new curriculum.

4. Individual conference. Two recess periods succeeding the visitation of classes by the principal furnished opportunity for comment on the observed lessons and permitted suggestions for correlations between art, literature, manual training, music, and social science which seemed to be enthusiastically received. With the new outline as a contact point and the activity chart mentioned above as criteria for guidance as to success of performance, it was easy to utilize concrete data for discussion and reference.

Characteristics and duration of transition period. In the early stages of the two-year program represented in this description the principal and teachers frequently found themselves hesitating through doubt of the best method or through lack of confidence in current measurable results. Standard achievements examinations as well as informal true-false tests revealed inaccuracies and raised serious questions about the effectiveness of the new procedures. The more intangible, less measurable ends by which children really learn to comprehend the world and their relation to it were not to be so easily tested. As a result the teachers and principal found it difficult to be content with the only apparent product, the new interests and attitudes evident in the children's study situation. At first, class demonstrations volunteered by teachers who had found some concrete device to stimulate pupil-initiated activity were given in assembly periods before the faculty and visiting classes. Later other members found courage to volunteer further lessons in which they themselves would guide classes in active pupil techniques before visitors. It was not until the second year of their experience with the new course in social science that they felt confident that the pupils were capable of

assuming individual responsibility within the various small class groups, thereby furthering their own learning in relation to the activity of the group.

Early in the second year there appeared a new encouraging phase in the gradual improvement of classroom conditions, the appearance of small group control with more or less recognized pupil leaders. It was much later that the teachers reported assurance that the whole group of forty-eight seemed individually competent to understand the purpose for which the current study was being pursued and the contributions they were each expected to make towards the advancement of the classroom projects.

At the present time (March, 1933) the teacher at Stone seems to be primarily the director of the various groups within the forty-eight members assigned to her classroom and the motivator of activities, establishing inspirational contacts with the pupils as well as checking and directing the development of essential learning skills and tools. The high rate at which the supervisory program succeeded was probably promoted by the fine spirit with which the particular teachers accepted the responsibility of initiating the projects suggested in the new curriculum and their self-appointed studies in the new techniques under University direction.

Gradually under the impetus of the new philosophy the classroom procedure of the social studies in Grades 5 and 6 has changed. Ten text books of recent date have supplanted the old single volume. A library has been organized with an endowment of books selected by the faculty and purchased by the Parent-Teacher Association. The library is in charge of a teacher who has specialized in social sciences at Northwestern University and has had experience in public-library service. The library is available daily from 9:00 to 3:00 to pupils from Grades 4, 5, and 6. Special guidance in locating source material, especially in social science, is given each class two of the three library periods each week.

Special supervisors in drawing and music have been generous with suggestions for possible correlations between the arts and the units in social science. Some of the work in these specialized fields has been done so well by the pupils that it appears that the vitalized teaching in social science has carried its influence over to the other subjects.

CASE 2. GENERAL SUPERVISORY PROGRAM (1932-1933)⁴²

I. General Objectives.

During this period of economic stress our thoughts have been directed to a more thrifty, economical, and careful way of conducting our activities. We plan to make the maximum use of our time and of all our school equipment. The Northside teachers are anxious to cooperate. We are especially interested this year to care for the needy of this community adequately and to provide aid for the children who have physical defects.

II. Specific Objectives.

- A. To carry out the new course of study in English.
- B. To cooperate in carrying out the new safety program.
- C. To continue our health campaign in an effort to detect and eliminate physical defects and to direct children for healthful living.
- D. To encourage careful supervision during recess and all other intermission periods.
- E. To become better acquainted with the homes of children.
- F. To classify children according to their school ability.
- G. To improve first teaching.
- H. To keep all children working up to their level.
- I. To improve the technique of teaching.
- J. To improve the group-activity periods.
- K. To study, analyze, and make use of all test results.
- L. To aid in directing the teaching of manuscript writing in the first grades.
- M. To refine our recreational-reading program.
- N. To encourage thrift in all things.

III. Plans for attaining these objectives.

Objective A.

1. Become acquainted with the English course.
 - a. General meeting
 - b. Smaller groups
2. Direct work so that it will be purposeful to children.

⁴² By Harriet Carpenter, principal of Monroe and McKinley Elementary Schools, Aberdeen, South Dakota. Adopted from C. J. Dalthorp, 1932-1933 *Supervisory and Administrative Programs of Principals and*

Objective B.

1. Study the safety program.
2. Plan a specified place on program for safety education.
3. Plan for effective work.
4. Plan original plays.

Objective C.

1. Plan time and make other arrangements for the physical examinations.
2. Consult parents concerning the recommendations made by the doctor and the nurse.
3. Arrange aid for those who cannot afford to have physical defects corrected.
4. Emphasize cleanliness.

Objective D.

1. Make a schedule of duties for recess and other intermissions.
2. Stress the fact that intermissions are only a change of activity.
3. Arrange for very close supervision of the toilets.

Objective E.

1. Visit the homes.
2. Work for a larger attendance at the Parent-Teacher Associations.
3. Plan to get acquainted with the parents at the meetings.
4. Invite parents to visit the classrooms.
5. Try to interest the parents in all school activities.

Objective F.

1. Study the results of the tests.
2. Classify the groups according to the results of the tests and according to the teacher's judgment.

Objective G.

1. Better preparation on part of teacher.
2. Better plans.
3. Study course of study.
4. Close check after first teaching.

Objective H.

1. Organize children into teaching groups.
2. Hold attention of group through interest.
3. Plan activities which will secure a maximum of pupil activity.
4. Interest parents in the work of the child.

Objective I.

1. Building meetings.
 - a. Study course of study
 - b. Study bulletins
 - c. Study books and magazines
2. Individual conferences after visitations.
3. Classroom demonstrations.
4. Study the evaluations of classroom procedures.

Objective J.

1. Provide a wider variety of subjects.
2. Promote leadership.
3. Plan fewer changes during the year.
4. Arrange assemblies growing out of units of work.
5. Encourage better preparation on part of leaders.
6. Insist on units of work being planned and written before work begins.

Objective K.

1. Give tests at end of each block of work and at other specified times.
2. Study and analyze results.
3. On basis of findings plan remedial work for individuals and for small groups to bring children up to standard.
4. Make progress charts to show pupils their improvement.
5. Encourage pupils to work for improvement.

Objective L.

1. Furnish materials for teachers.
2. Encourage better blackboard work on part of teachers.

Objective M.

1. Plan units of work that center around worth-while reading materials such as
 - a. *Alice in Wonderland*
 - b. *Robin Hood*
 - c. *Pinnocchio*
 - d. Indian life
 - e. Colonial life
 - f. Poetry
 - g. Transportation
 - h. Nature
 - i. Greek myths
2. Plan assembly programs on the completion of a reading unit.

3. Share the summaries with other rooms and with the P. T. A.

Objective N.

1. Conserve in all school supplies, paper, pencils, etc.
2. Be careful with the lights.
3. Regulate the heating of the rooms.
4. Hold all meetings in the afternoons instead of evenings.
5. Be thrifty with our time—make every minute count.

CASE 3. REPORT OF SUPERVISORY PROGRAM IN THE FIELD OF READING
(1932-1933)⁴³

In October, 1932, the Sangren-Woody Reading Test, Form A, was given to the pupils of Grades 4, 5, and 6. This test was chosen because of its value in diagnosing the specific difficulties of individual children. The test is designed to measure pupil abilities in seven specific phases of reading. Each pupil's scores on the tests were assembled to show the level of his ability in each of the seven specific aspects of reading. By comparing the pupil's scores with the grade norms, the degree of strength or weakness was discovered. An examination of the following sample cases will reveal the wide range of ability existing in the 5B class.

RANGE OF ABILITY IN GRADE 5B IN THE SANGREN-WOODY READING TEST.
FORM A

Pupil No.	Grade Score on Each of Seven Phases of Reading							Composite Grade Score (Norm for 5B—5.1)
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
1.....	5.4	3.8	3.0	3.4	6.0	6.0	8.0	4.9
2.....	4.8	3.8	3.6	4.0	5.0	5.0	7.0	4.7
3.....	5.6	3.8	4.0	4.4	5.0	6.0	8.0	5.2
4.....	5.4	7.4	3.0	6.0	8.0	8.0	2.0	5.5
5.....	5.4	3.6	2.2	5.0	5.0	7.0	4.0	4.8
6.....	5.6	4.8	5.4	7.0	7.0	5.0	10.0	5.8

The entire 5B grade contained 28 pupils.

⁴³ This program was carried out at the James Russell Lowell School, Long Beach, California. Description of program secured through the courtesy of Mr. D. A. Newcomb, principal of the Lowell School.

A careful examination of all the scores for pupils in Grades 4, 5 and 6 showed that the greatest frequency of "below norm" levels occurred on the tests for "Comprehension of Factual Material" and on "Reading to Grasp the Total Meaning." Since this same condition prevailed throughout the three grades, it was decided to concentrate for a period of at least twenty lessons upon the first difficulty, and for the following approximately twenty lessons upon the second difficulty. Our past experience had shown us that more can be accomplished by stressing one or two phases of the work over a long period of time than by trying to touch upon a large number of difficulties during an equal period. Consequently, it was decided to place the emphasis where the greatest need appeared to be. For each period of study the pupils of each class were divided into three groups, the grouping being based upon the test results.

The following tabulation shows the grouping for Grade 5B.

SUGGESTED REMEDIAL PROGRAM

GRADE 5B—LOWELL SCHOOL

1. Twenty lessons on reading of fact material (reading to note detail).
 - Group I. Independent readers: reading levels as indicated.
Group included pupils No. 6—5A, 16—6B, 27—6B, 28—7B.
 - Group II. Remedial: range 3.6—4.4. Begin work with 4A level.
Group included pupils No. 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 20, 23, 26. *Material:* Gates Remedial Exercises, Book IV, Type D; Mimeographed List—Noting Details.
 - Group III. Remedial: range 2.0—3.0. Begin work with 3B level.
Group included pupils No. 1, 4, 5, 22, 25, 18, 19, 21, 24. *Material:* Gates Remedial Exercises, Book III, Type D; Mimeographed List—Noting Detail.
2. Twenty lessons on reading to find total meaning (general significance).
 - Group I. Independent readers: reading levels as indicated.
Group included pupils No. 4—6B, 5—5B, 6—5A, 7—5A, 11—5A or 6B, 14—5A, 16—6B, 17—7A, 20—6B, 22—6B, 27—6B, 28—7B.
 - Group II. Remedial: range 4.0—4.4. Begin work with 4A level.
Group included pupils No. 2, 3, 18, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 21, 23, 24, 26. *Material:* Gates Remedial Exercises, Book IV, Type A; Mimeographed List—General Significance.
 - Group III. Remedial: range 3.0—3.6. Begin work with 3A level.
Group included pupils No. 1, 19, 25. *Material:* Gates Remedial Exercises, Book III, Type A; Mimeographed List—General Significance.

It will be noted that during the period when comprehension of fact material was to be stressed, four people were placed in the independent group. Their total reading grades ranged from 5.8 to 8.6, although the norm was only 5.1. In the particular phase of reading which was to be stressed in the other groups, they were safely above the norm. The pupils who were placed in the second group were those whose total reading score was approximately at norm or above, but whose level on factual material was below norm not more than a year and a half. The pupils in the third group were those whose reading skill on factual material was very weak.

Recommendations were made for the level of the reading material to be placed in the hands of the groups. Since the pupils of the first group were to work independently, their books should not exceed in difficulty their level as indicated by the test. Since the work in the other groups was to be strictly remedial, under the careful guidance of the teacher, it might be possible for the children to read on a slightly higher level than the test results would indicate. The recommendations were strictly suggestive, and if the classroom teacher discovered the work was too simple or too difficult, she was free to make adjustments. A study of the grouping for the second period of study will show that these children were placed with the same ideas in mind.

The time allotment for a week's work was as follows (illustrative weekly schedule):

Three days—remedial work:

Group I. Independent reading 40 min.

Group II. Recitation 20 min., independent study 20 min.

Group III. Independent study 20 min., recitation 20 min.

One day—audience reading (or new skill) and appreciation of good literature.

One day—library.

In other words, every child had one day a week of recreational reading in the library, where he was at liberty to follow his individual interests under the direction of the librarian. It is believed that the bright children progress without the direction of the teacher. Even the slower ones need the experience of being thrown upon their own resources, and to learn the joys of reading for entertainment. Every child met his teacher once a week with the other members of his class for a period of literature appreciation or for audience reading. Often during this period, pupils shared with their classmates some bit of choice reading which had particularly intrigued them during the week. Or perhaps the teacher presented some beautiful bit of literature which integrated with the unit of work the class was carry-

ing on. At this period also the teacher was able to present any new skill which would be needed by the class.

On the other three days, the independent readers worked alone, on material on their proper grade level, and carefully chosen as to their individual interests. For the remedial groups, the forty-minute period was divided into two twenty-minute sections. Group II recited for twenty minutes on the assignment of the previous day which had been prepared during the previous period of independent study. Where failure to recognize the words or to comprehend the content was discovered, careful instruction was given. During this time, Group III was engaged in independent study. For the next twenty minutes, the procedure was reversed.

Before proceeding with the remedial program a further study was made of the weakest pupils in each class. The elementary supervisor, who had had much experience in the testing of weak pupils, worked individually with each one to learn if his ability was really on as low a level as the test indicated. She also wished to discover, if possible, the reasons for their troubles. Were they in need of concentrated drill in word analysis? Were the meanings of words not clear? Was the difficulty in the interpretation of the material in hand? Did they recall readily the facts acquired, or was this skill lost in the struggle with the mechanics of reading? Was it a matter of poor concentration? If so, this might be due to some physical condition or again to some emotional disturbance. This interview with the child was most informal. Typewritten lists of words had been prepared by which she might learn whether the child's difficulty was one of word recognition.

The child being studied was presented with one of these typewritten sheets, with only List 1 exposed to view. He was asked to pronounce the words. The ones giving difficulty were checked on the tester's sheet but no help was given. The child was then presented with List 2, where the same words were divided into syllables and the accent marked. He pronounced the words in this list. The troublesome ones were again marked on the tester's sheet. Then the tester gave the child the needed help in further analysis and pronunciation of the troublesome words. The supervisor also heard them read from factual material on the level where the test placed their ability. In some cases she found that the child had greater power than the test had revealed. By watching the child in action, and by studying his responses with a critical mind, she was able in each case to formulate a theory as to the probable cause of the trouble. The following diagnoses are typical. Of Gloria Ann, 6A pupil, she said:

Much difficulty with word recognition and word meaning. Spanish used together with English in home. 5A

material too difficult without much help. Has not read any book in its entirety since school opened.

Of Patricia A., 6B child, she learned the books she had read were very simple. They are *Peppi, the Duck, Poppy Seed Cakes*, and *The City That Mrs. Winkle Built*. The diagnosis was:

Reads 5A material fairly well, although a little slowly. Has difficulty concentrating on thought but can do so when worked with individually. Interprets thought fairly well.

Conferences of the supervisor, principal, counselor, school nurse, and classroom teacher were held in order to ascertain any abnormal physical or emotional conditions which could be affecting the work of these retarded children. Telephone calls and home visits were made where the coöperation of the family was urgent.

For the pupils who were found to be unquestionably far below standard, a plan for pupil tutors was devised. In choosing these tutors two things were taken into consideration: first, their reading achievement, and second, their personality. Each of the pupil tutors had a grade placement on the Sangren-Woody Reading Test which was above 8.5, which was as high as the scale is carried out. It was essential that the pupil tutor while being particularly talented in reading, be also sympathetic and patient toward the weakness of a class mate. Each pupil tutor was assigned one very weak pupil for whom he was to be responsible for a period of several weeks.

Each day each tutor met his pupil in an empty classroom under the supervision of a teacher for a 40 minute period. Reading material was provided on the level of the child to be strengthened. Factual material (never fictional material) that was entirely new to the child was used. Both the pupil and the tutor had a copy. The pupil read orally to the tutor. When an error was made by the pupil the tutor lightly underlined that word in her book and told the child the word. After the oral reading period was complete, the tutor gave the child another opportunity to pronounce the troublesome words. If the child was then unable to recognize these words they were pronounced by the tutor, and written by the tutor in a notebook kept for this purpose. The words in this notebook were reviewed from time to time. Then questions on this lesson which had previously been prepared by the classroom teacher were asked by the tutor. If the child had not comprehended the passage enough to answer satisfactorily, he was asked to re-read orally.

In order to help the teachers locate needed material for remedial work, we provided them with a bulletin on material for remedial

reading, classified according to probable difficulty and reading skill, which they found very useful.

Since this material is arranged according to grades, it was possible for each teacher to select reading matter on the level of the group to be helped.

During the time when this remedial program was functioning, we felt that definite progress was being made. However, we were unexpectedly interrupted by the earthquake, and for several weeks were entirely unorganized. At present classes are being held on the playgrounds for the minimum length of time, so this reading program is still being interrupted. However, we hope in a short time to have things running smoothly again, and to take up this work where we dropped it. It is our intention to re-test in June, using another form of the same reading test. It is believed that a substantial growth will then be shown, since the above plan embodies many recognized principles in remedial teaching.

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CHAPTER IX

THE ADMINISTRATION OF SERVICE AGENCIES

In the progress of public education there have developed a number of service agencies which may be observed as functioning services in the work of the school. The growth of the service activities of the public-school systems has not been a gradual process of evolution.¹ Throughout the past fifty years certain factors have exerted influences which have led the public schools to the establishment of separate departments and agencies for the treatment of different aspects of child growth and welfare and for the more effective administration of certain phases of school work. The rise of industrialism and the subsequent legislation regarding child-labor and compulsory school attendance brought to the public schools a wide variety of ability and behavior personalities and many types of children who, as was soon demonstrated, could not receive the maximum benefits from the existing schools.

Current trends in public education and modern conceptions of teaching were placing increased responsibilities upon the teacher as a director of learning. Developments in methods of teaching and research in educational and clinical psychology and student health provided the teacher with many new and very useful instruments and techniques for the improvement of her work; but they have, at the same time, placed upon her the inescapable responsibility of utilizing these newer devices and sources of information to improve the effectiveness of her labors.

¹ N. H. Hegel, "The Social Services of the Public Schools," in the *Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois*, Vol. I, Division of Field Studies, Institute of Educational Research (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), p. 331.

Coincident with the above developments came a more complex economic and social life. The adjustment to this more intricate environment placed further burdens upon the educative agencies and in many cases extended the services of the schools. The growing feeling of democratic education insisted that the children deviating from the normal be adequately cared for with the result that special groups, classes, and units were set up quite separate and apart from the regular educational activities. To assist the teacher in the application of scientific principles and techniques and to facilitate the effective administration of the entire program for public education, certain service agencies have been established. Among these may be classed compulsory-attendance service, child-study work, visiting-teacher service, psychological service, special classes and schools for truant and behavior cases, and health service.

ATTENDANCE SERVICE

Compulsory attendance at school is not a recent concept in educational thought. In England its beginnings have been traced to the year 1405.² In America the idea of compulsory education was expressed in the early Massachusetts law of 1642.³ It was not, however, until after the Civil War (Table LVIII) that modern compulsory education laws appeared in the various states. It is of interest to note that in sixteen states these laws were not placed upon the statutes until after the opening of the present century and that in one state this step was not taken until 1918. At present the lower age limits for compulsory attendance, presented in Chapter II, Table VI, range from six years to eight years, while the upper limits range from age fourteen to age eighteen.

² F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory School Attendance and Child Labor* (Iowa City, Iowa, The Athens Press, 1921), p. 10.

³ G. H. Martin, *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System* (D. Appleton and Co., 1898), p. 8.

TABLE LVIII

YEARS IN WHICH MODERN COMPULSORY EDUCATION LAWS WERE
ADOPTED IN THE FORTY-EIGHT STATES *

Years	States	Years	States
1852	Massachusetts	1889	Colorado, Oregon
1867	Vermont	1890	Utah
1871	New Hampshire, Michigan, Washington	1895	Pennsylvania
1872	Connecticut, New Mexico	1896	Kentucky
1873	Nevada	1897	West Virginia, Indiana
1874	New York, Kansas, Cali- fornia	1899	Arizona
1875	Maine, New Jersey	1902	Iowa, Maryland
1876	Wyoming	1905	Missouri, Tennessee
1877	Ohio	1907	Delaware, North Carolina, Oklahoma
1879	Wisconsin	1908	Virginia
1883	Rhode Island, North Dako- ta, South Dakota, Mon- tana, Illinois	1909	Arkansas
1885	Minnesota	1910	Louisiana
1887	Nebraska, Idaho	1915	Florida, South Carolina
		1916	Texas
		1917	Alabama, Georgia
		1918	Mississippi

* From A. O. Heck, *Administration of Pupil Personnel* (Ginn and Co., 1920), p. 22

It has been generally recognized that compulsory attendance is an essential corollary to free public education and that the state is responsible for making sure that all its children, for their own sake, receive education. A democratic state is also duty bound to demand for its own protection and preservation that all its children receive the essential elements of a good education. From the viewpoint of the individual, education is so essential to independent citizenship that one would expect to find all parents eager to utilize every educational opportunity for their children. Although this is true in the majority of cases and most parents desire their children to attend regularly, there are some who manifest a disinterested attitude. Statistics show that for the school years 1919-1920 there were in the United States approximately 7,000,000 of the school population (ages five to seventeen inclusive)

who were not enrolled in public or private schools. Figures also show that a higher percentage of children attend school when eleven years of age than at any other age, but that still 6 per cent of the children of that age do not attend school at all.⁴

Although many factors are operative in causing non-attendance on the part of elementary-school children (Table LIX) it is apparent that a large majority of the cases are definitely remediable in character or can be controlled further if appropriate preventive measures are taken by parents and the school. An analysis of the data of Table LIX shows that nearly 50 per cent of the cases of absence are due to respiratory illness (colds, influenza, sore throat, croup, pneumonia, bronchitis, and asthma cases total 3,110). Because of the character of the weather during winter months in the locality in which these data were gathered, the majority of the absences due to respiratory illness occur during winter months. Although the home and the school have no control over weather conditions, the facts suggest the character of the work which must be done to reduce absences. The urgent need for careful control of air circulation, temperature, and humidity in classrooms, the wearing of appropriate clothing, and the coöperation of parents is apparent. Obviously remedial measures in these cases deal, not so much with attendance service, but with the improvement of the general program for health.

A second group of items from Table LIX suggest problems of attendance of a somewhat different character. Causes of absence such as shopping, visiting friends or relatives, oversleeping, business, and loitering constitute nearly 14 per cent of the total cases and suggest a fruitful field for constructive attendance service. Usually these latter types of causes for non-attendance apply more generally to the intermediate grades whereas inclement weather is more likely to keep the younger children from school.

⁴ W. W. Keeseecker, *Laws Relating to Compulsory Education*, Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1928, No. 20, p. 28.

TABLE LIX

CAUSES OF NON-ATTENDANCE IN KINDERGARTEN AND GRADES 1-6,
INCLUSIVE, PUBLIC SCHOOL, ELMHURST, ILLINOIS, DECEMBER, 1931-
MAY, 1932 *

Causes Associated With Personal Illness	Cases	Causes Other Than Personal Illness	Cases
Colds	2,399	Bad weather.....	555
Stomach disorders.....	363	Shopping.....	329
Influenza.....	345	Visiting—no one at home— travel.....	218
Sore throat—stiff neck.....	278	Overslept—tired—up late..	207
Headache.....	265	Home duties	166
Illness (no definite reason)..	150	Business	156
Earache.....	136	Death (relative or friend)..	91
Measles.....	110	Accident.....	88
Scarlet fever contact.....	87	Exposure to cold—wet clothes.....	48
Scarlet fever.....	58	Relative ill.....	41
Croup—cough—hoarseness..	55	Doctor's examination....	40
Chicken pox.....	52	Inadequate clothing.....	25
Eye disease (trouble).....	51	Wasted time	14
Infection	44	Private lessons.....	8
Toothache.....	40	Moving.....	6
Laxative.....	39	Muddy streets.....	5
Asthma.....	19	Church duties.....	3
Ear trouble.....	16	Employment.....	1
Bronchitis.....	14		
Pneumonia.....	13		
Rash.....	12		
Infantile paralysis contact..	8		
Itch	8		
Heart trouble.....	7		
Diphtheria and contact.....	6		
Trench mouth.....	6		
Mumps.....	5		
Ringworm.....	4		
Appendicitis.....	4		
Kidney trouble.....	3		
Infantile paralysis.....	2		
Chicken pox contact.....	1		
Mastoid.....	1		
Operation.....	1		
Total.....	4,582	Total.....	2,001

* From Annual Report, 1931-1932, Elementary Schools, Elmhurst, Illinois.

In reviewing and interpreting the above data it must be remembered that the causes for non-attendance and hence the nature of the problems which the attendance department must handle are likely to be local in character, depending upon the type of community and the general attitudes regarding education. Data gathered by Bermejo in 1923 from three hundred cities showed that truancy and parental neglect were among the most common causes for absence from school.⁵ It is to safeguard the children of the small minority of disinterested parents that compulsory laws have been passed and that the effective enforcement of the laws is essential.

CHANGING ATTITUDES REGARDING ATTENDANCE SERVICE

Traditionally the function of attendance service was conceived as solely compulsory in character. The duty of an attendance officer was considered to be that of receiving from principals lists of children who failed to appear at school from day to day and make sure that such children did appear.⁶ Another duty was to seek out truants upon the streets or in loitering places and to take them directly to school. Bureaus of attendance were very conscious of their responsibility for *enforcement* and permitted compulsion to occupy a prominent place in the formulation of their techniques. When attendance laws were first passed a half century ago, there was a meager understanding of the real nature and causes of truancy. It was assumed that the responsibility for non-attendance lay entirely with the parents and the child and court action was resorted to as the means for enforcing the law. Workers adequately trained to study thoroughly the problems of truancy were not available even though the need for them had been felt.

⁵ F. V. Bermejo, *The School Attendance Service in American Cities* (Menasha, Wis., George Banta Publishing Co., 1923), pp. 97-99.

⁶ A. O. Heck, *Administration of Pupil Personnel* (Ginn and Co., 1929), p. 86.

Modern attendance service operates on a higher professional plane. Although enforcement is still one of its responsibilities, it recognizes the interrelationship between truancy, misbehavior, and maladjustment at school and the major social problems with which social economists and social workers in general are engaged.⁷ Attendance service is now generally recognized as an educational function. Much of the activity of an attendance bureau consists of social case work which can be carried on successfully only by properly qualified persons.

In recent years much more attention has been given to the study of the causes of truancy and attendance service has aimed to be more largely preventive than remedial. Less emphasis has been placed upon the police function of the attendance officer. He has been considered first of all a social worker who can go into the homes and study the social conditions which cause non-attendance at school. The aim of this department is not to get the child back to school irrespective of his attitude and irrespective of the attitude of the parents toward the school. It aims, rather, to win the confidence of both the child and the parent so that when the child does reënter school it will be with a new appreciation of the school's work and his relation to it so that he will no longer be a maladjusted individual.

ORGANIZATION FOR ATTENDANCE SERVICE

In most of the larger cities attendance service has been organized on a city-wide basis. A central department carrying some such title as *Bureau of Compulsory Education*, *Attendance Department*, or *Bureau of Pupil Accounting* is responsible for the organization and coördination of the work for the city. The title usually given to the head official in this department is "director of attendance."⁸ Responsible to him

⁷ N. H. Hegel, "The Social Services of the Public Schools," *op. cit.*, p. 138.

⁸ A. O. Heck, *op. cit.*, p. 91.

may be such persons as the chief of the attendance bureau, chief of the census bureau, the principal of the continuation schools, the chief clerk in charge of issuing work permits, a group of visiting teachers, and a number of stenographers and clerks.

The functions suggested by the titles of the officials in an attendance department indicate the scope of the activities which must be properly coördinated if a desirable type of social service is to be rendered. Whether or not the law of the state requires that all private and parochial schools report to a central attendance bureau, it is desirable to have the attendance service of a city organized in such a way that a central agency can set up a unified accounting system for *all* the children of compulsory school age within the district. The first step in the development of such a unified program is the establishment of a complete, accurate, and precise system of child accounting records. Little coördination of the work can be done for the city as a whole until a complete and accurate record system is functioning for all public, private, and parochial schools, thus providing means for stopping all "leaks" of hundreds of children from school attendance.

Another essential feature of the organization for attendance service is a permanent continuing census. In many cities hundreds of children are lost each year and are indicated as "not located." Under a well organized system of child accounting the number of such cases should be extremely small. Experience has demonstrated that the old-fashioned school census of the annual house to house canvass type is practically valueless for large cities. Other techniques must be employed to maintain a permanent continuing census. Essential to the maintenance of a continuing census are permanent records which provide for each child a cumulative individual record of attendance, promotion, scholarship, health, and achievement as well as a minimum of social data. These various types of data should be circulated with the children as they move from school to school. It is also essential that there be

maintained a central file into which the records of withdrawals go and out of which the records of readmitted pupils come, no matter how long the interval of withdrawal may be. In addition it is desirable to set up complete case records for problem cases. It is only with the aid of a complete, accurate, and up-to-date record system that the work of an attendance bureau can be conducted effectively and the work of the various members of the staff properly coördinated.

ATTENDANCE PROBLEMS AND THE LOCAL SCHOOL

Each local school unit within the city has very immediate relations with the problems of non-attendance. It is in the local unit that the first record of pupil absences is made. A common practice is for school principals to report all absences daily to the attendance officer. The purpose of such a complete daily report is not that the attendance official shall forthwith investigate all cases so reported. It merely aids the attendance bureau in checking upon the extent to which the principals and teachers are handling their own attendance problems. Obviously many absences are of a temporary and unavoidable character and can be handled by telephone from the principal's office. A second report of absences should be sent. This latter report would include those cases which the school has failed to control. It is here that the individual school can render a real service to increase the quality and effectiveness of the attendance officer's work. If each report is accompanied by as complete a history of the child as it is possible for the school to obtain, the attendance official is put in possession of a host of information which might take him days to procure and which will enable him to approach the case from the viewpoint of a social worker who is trying to understand all the related factors and to bring about a readjustment of the child and the establishment of wholesome, normal attitudes.

It must be remembered that frequently the causes of

truancy rest primarily within the school itself. In many instances the schools are organized, administered, and taught as of yore. The school is a formalized institution with rigid and uniform procedures. Teachers and principals devoted to their special tasks lose patience with the nonconforming child. They prefer the youths that readily adjust themselves to the daily routine of the school. Due to lack of time, proper techniques, or interest on the part of the teachers, the idiosyncrasies of pupils are not studied and no attempts are made to adjust school procedures to the peculiar needs of certain pupils. Constant demand for conformity without proper recognition of the emotional and other factors surrounding the case aggravates the situation until an otherwise normal child may become maladjusted or even be classed as "atypical." If that situation is reached behavior or truant problems may develop. It then becomes the path of least resistance to pass on to behavior centers, truant, or parental schools all those who are problems, whether real or school created.⁹ It is perhaps not far from truth to state that if techniques were applied which would give a real understanding of the child and if proper attempts were made to adjust school procedures to individual differences, thus providing each child with work suited to his level of ability and with dynamic centers of interest which lend motivation, a large majority of the potential unadjusted children would never become problem cases.

Each local school thus occupies a strategic position with reference to attendance problems. It is within the school and its surrounding environment that the problems arise. The initial report to the central attendance bureau must originate in the local unit. The person who investigates the case works in close coöperation with the parents and the teachers and the principal. Finally the pupil who has been absent or has become a behavior problem must be adjusted to the school, its environment, and its purposes. Any facts obtained by the social worker which supplement the school records should be

⁹ N. H. Hegel, "Social Services of the Public Schools," *op. cit.*, p. 338.

made available to teachers and utilized in all possible ways in effecting a readjustment of the child. All of these relationships between the local school and attendance service are obviously in addition to the large majority of cases which are handled directly by the principal and the teachers.

THE TEACHER'S RELATIONS TO ATTENDANCE PROBLEMS

Because the teacher is directly responsible for the work of instruction and is in immediate supervision of the progress and growth of pupils, she is more interested in good attendance than is any other person in the school organization. The teacher perhaps realizes most fully the interruptions in her work and the gaps in pupil progress which are caused by absences. The magnitude of this problem may be observed in Figure 17, which shows that on the average more than 10 per cent of the total number of children enrolled in city elementary schools are absent each day. If the total enrollment in public day schools (elementary and

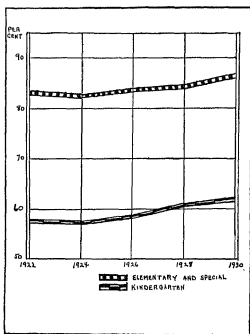


FIG. 17. PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS ENROLLED ATTENDING SCHOOL, 1922-1930, IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Adapted from *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930*, Vol. II, Ch. III.

secondary) in cities with populations of 2,500 and more is considered, the average number of school days wasted through non-attendance is 28.9 (Table LX). When pupils miss school it is desirable that the work should be made up. If a conscient-

TABLE LX

NUMBER OF DAYS SCHOOLS WERE IN SESSION AND THE NUMBER OF DAYS ATTENDED BY EACH PUPIL ENROLLED IN CITIES IN 1929-1930 *

Group	Days in Session	Days Attended	Days "Wasted"
I (100,000 population and more)	188.3	157.7	20.6
II (30,000 to 99,999 population)	183.4	154.0	29.4
III (10,000 to 29,999 population)	181.8	154.7	27.1
IV (2,500 to 9,999 population)	179.7	153.3	26.4
Total	184.5	155.6	28.9

* From *Statistics of City School Systems: 1929-1930*, United States Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 20, p. 3.

tious attempt is made by teachers to have pupils compensate through extra work for the time missed, much teacher time is consumed in follow-up instruction. If the teacher time requisite for make-up work is not available and pupils are readmitted to class groups which by this time have progressed to advanced stages in the work for the grade, there are dangers of creating for the pupil a situation which may result in maladjustment, retardation, and failure.

Among other responsibilities regarding attendance which rest upon the classroom teacher are: the daily reporting of absences; understanding home conditions and coöperating with the home in securing regular and willing attendance; and developing a proper attitude toward pupils and wholesome attitudes among pupils.¹⁰ The latter is a very important factor

¹⁰ E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1928).

in determining regularity of attendance. In the last analysis it is the classroom teacher who exerts a potent influence in determining the environment and activities of children while they are in school and in her hands rests the responsibility for applying educational procedures which will prevent maladjustment, truancy, and behavior cases.

SOCIAL SERVICE A COÖPERATIVE TASK

The various types of social service, including attendance service, which are carried on in a given community have common aims, the ultimate attainment of which must result from coöperative endeavor. School authorities have appreciated and have attempted to utilize the assistance which the increasing number of special agencies interested in child life offer toward the solution of school problems. Philanthropic social-service organizations are in constant touch with the homes from which many problem cases come. The appointment to the school staff of persons, such as the visiting teacher, who understand the schools and who also have the proper training in social service has resulted in a more satisfactory articulation between the home and the school. The establishment of medical, psychological, and psychiatric clinics has contributed much toward a more intensive study of all the allied factors contributing to behavior problems and has tended to bring about a complete reversal of attitude on the part of teachers and staff officers regarding disciplinary problems and disorders of behavior. The services of these specialists have brought to the attention of the schools the need for and the importance of studying the questions of pupil adjustment from the viewpoint of mental hygiene.

THE VISITING TEACHER

Visiting-teacher work is a comparatively recent development in school practice and has come about in response to needs recognized jointly in the fields of education and of social work. The movement was started in New York City in 1906 by private initiative.¹¹ Public-spirited organizations in Boston and Hartford inaugurated similar practices in 1907, but it was not until after 1913 that boards of education undertook to sponsor the work. Rochester, New York, was the first city in which the board of education was responsible for the inception of visiting-teacher service.¹² The period from 1914 to 1921 is characterized by the general adoption of this type of service by other cities. The period from 1921 to the present has been called the period of national expansion in visiting-teacher work. It is during this time that attention has centered largely upon the development and improvement of the service and a critical study of the specific functions and contributions which can be made by this form of social service.

The scope of the work of the visiting teacher is almost as broad as the entire educational environment of the child. For the cases referred to her, the visiting teacher attempts to discover and to effect a correction of the factors in the child's personal make-up, in his school environment, in his home life, and in his community contacts which are contributing to or actually causing his maladjustment. Reference to Tables LXI and LXII will suggest the nature of the referred cases and the measures that visiting teachers have found helpful. Although deficient scholarship seems to be the most frequently recorded index whereby teachers recognize problem cases, there are many other reasons for referring pupils to the visiting teacher. There are numerous cases in which several difficulties have been noted for the same child.

¹¹ J. J. Oppenheimer, *The Visiting Teacher Movement* (New York, Public School Association, 1924).

¹² Mabel B. Ellis, *The Visiting Teacher in Rochester*, Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (New York, 1925), p. 39.

TABLE LXI

TYPES OF PROBLEMS REFERRED TO VISITING TEACHERS AS ANALYZED
FROM 8,500 CASES RECORDED BY VISITING TEACHERS IN TWENTY-ONE
COMMUNITIES *

Type of Problem	Number of Cases
Scholarship.....	4,140
Behavior.....	2,964
Home conditions.....	2,213
Irregular attendance.....	1,024
Special health problems	410
Leaving school.....	364
Problems of school relationships	159
Repeated lateness.	150
Unusual personality traits.....	61
Special attendance problems.....	50
Problems of recreation and social relationships.....	32
Employment adjustment.....	21

* Adapted from Jane F. Culbert, *The Visiting Teacher at Work*, p. 5.

TABLE LXII

MEASURES FOUND BY VISITING TEACHERS TO BE MOST EFFECTIVE IN
ASSISTING THE SCHOOL TO ADJUST THE CHILD *

Measures	Number of Cases
Bringing about better understanding of home situations	4,552
Changing the school's attitude toward the child.....	2,799
Modifying school program.....	1,232
Coöperation by:	
School Nurse.....	1,242
Psychologist.....	1,130
Attendance officer.....	405
Other specialists.....	97
Class teacher, through special service.....	780
Changing child's location to:	
Another regular class.....	757
Special class.....	140
Another school.....	584
Excusing from attendance for special reasons.....	61
Giving special financial assistance.....	39
Organizing special clubs.....	10
Making special arrangements for employment	14

* From Jane F. Culbert, *The Visiting Teacher at Work*, p. 37.

The scope and nature of the visiting teacher's work suggest the variety of duties and responsibilities which are hers. In minor details the exact nature of her activities depends upon the extent and type of personnel work done in the local school units to which she is assigned and upon the policies regarding visiting-teacher service which prevail in a given city. There are some functions, however, which appear to be more or less general. Oppenheimer reports the following list of "core" functions, each item of which was approved by 75 per cent of all the judges, by 75 per cent of visiting teachers, and was actually performed by 75 per cent of the visiting teachers reporting:¹³

1. Interview parents in regard to the children's personal history, habits, temperament, and interests.

2. Analyze the child's social environment, home, and neighborhood.

3. Confer with parents to enlist their coöperation when the child shows signs of falling below the school's standards of scholarship, conduct, etc.

4. Try to adjust home conditions, whereby more favorable conditions will be attained in regard to school work, conduct, attendance, and interest.

5. Aid mothers in planning their work so that it will not be a handicap and a burden to children.

6. Interpret the school's purposes and ideals, as well as the meaning of school marks to foreign and ignorant parents.

7. Secure the family history, the personal history of the child and the social data for the psychologist when mental deficiency is suspected.

8. Aid in securing better school adjustment for misfits.

9. Secure the psychological examination of children suspected of mental deficiency.

10. In very difficult problem cases secure an expert psychiatric examination with the approval of the psychologist.

11. Bring to the principal and the teacher all data which will make for a better understanding of the child.

12. Secure personal and social data for the principal and the teachers which can be utilized in making educational procedure more effective.

¹³ J. J. Oppenheimer, *op. cit.*, pp. 122-124.

13. Advise parents of the community agencies which will aid them in present difficulty.

14. Refer to and secure the coöperation of relief agencies when the family is in need of help.

15. Secure the services of visiting nurses or the hospital when illness is found in the family.

16. Report cases of suspected contagious diseases to the nurse or health authorities.

17. Aid the nurse in persuading parents to provide for medical or surgical treatment, including glasses.

18. Take or have children taken to a special clinic in case of difficult physical defects if the outside duties of the nurse prohibit her from doing so.

19. Aid in securing scholarships for promising children who should remain in school.

20. Refer working mothers with small children to nurseries when necessary.

21. Aid families in need of work to secure employment through legitimate agencies.

22. Endeavor to find out the causes of unusual misconduct and endeavor to remedy conditions.

23. Confer with parents in regard to misconduct and endeavor to change the child's interests or help him to drop bad associates.

24. Secure the coöperation of recreational agencies, libraries, big brothers, and big sisters in the prevention of possible delinquency.

25. In extreme cases refer misconduct to the juvenile court or to a society for the prevention of cruelty to children.

26. Coöperate in every way possible with the probation officers of the juvenile court.

27. Refer cases of improper guardianship to child-welfare agencies.

28. Report immoral neighborhood influences to a proper organization.

29. Investigate the home conditions of children who request working papers.

30. Secure the assistance of a religious organization when the family needs moral and friendly encouragement.

31. Represent the school in all dealings with special agencies.

32. Investigate the causes of intermittent attendance.

The manner in which the visiting teacher functions in a school system brings her in contact with many departments, types of professional workers, and out-of-school agencies. Staff relationships are therefore very important and coöpera-

tion of a high type is essential if the work is to be effective. Since the most desirable practice is to assign a visiting teacher to a specific building or a few conveniently situated buildings, rather than on a city-wide basis, she will work most intimately with the principal and the classroom teachers of a designated area. The principal and the director of the visiting-teacher service generally supervise the work as it applies to the local school. To avoid delay and to obtain the most immediate information regarding cases, it is recommended that cases be referred to the visiting teacher directly from classroom teachers and that reports be made directly to teachers.¹⁴ Through the use of appropriate record forms and conferences teachers may be supplied continuously with information regarding a case and the principal may be kept in close touch with the work.

The visiting teacher will have constant need for the coöperation of various specialists and special departments. The psychologist, as a member of the child-study department or the bureau for research and measurement, may furnish data regarding the mental, emotional, or academic status of pupils referred to the visiting teacher. The close interrelationship between the many phases of child life suggests the many helpful ways in which the visiting teacher may use the information gathered by the health clinic and the supplementary facts obtained by school nurses. Frequently pertinent data may be obtained from outside organizations, such as health agencies, recreation centers, employment agencies, social welfare bureaus, and children's courts. As the visiting teacher may use to advantage the assistance from these various groups, so in turn these special departments and organizations may find the visiting teacher a source of enlightenment for some of their special problems.

Perhaps the most serious conflicts of authority and overlapping of functions occur between the work of visiting teach-

¹⁴ Jane F. Culbert, *The Visiting Teacher at Work* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1929), pp. 86-96.

ers and that of attendance officers. The fact that visiting-teacher service is a comparatively new venture for the schools may account for the present uncertainty regarding the exact status of this type of social service. In some cities a separate department of visiting teachers has been established, while in other cities this service is established as a part of the department of child guidance, or the department of child welfare, or the attendance department. Some authorities believe that the main purpose of the visiting teacher is to do educationally constructive work, and that if she is to achieve her greatest usefulness her work must be positive and free from any connection with the exercise of authority.¹⁵ It is feared if she became identified by teachers, parents, and pupils with a department whose major function has been so long connected with law enforcement, her approach would become a negative one, or at best, only ameliorative. The prospect of accomplishing her special mission would be enormously curtailed. Rochester, in the initial stages of visiting-teacher service, found it necessary to have some of its visiting teachers assume the burden of attendance service. This practice of dual responsibility proved undesirable and was abandoned in 1924.¹⁶ Other authorities are confident that as attendance service reaches a higher plane and adopts more and more the standards and methods of social-case workers the sharp demarcation of function between the visiting teacher and the attendance officer will disappear and that the time will come when there will be but one type of social service in the schools.¹⁷

BEHAVIOR CENTERS

Closely allied to attendance and visiting-teacher service is the maintenance of special classes and schools for wayward, truant, and incorrigible boys and girls. In many school systems

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 123.

¹⁶ Mabel B. Ellis, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

¹⁷ N. H. Hegel, *op. cit.*, p. 344.

the centers for the care of these types of problem cases are designated as special schools and classes along with such special provisions as have been made for the mentally and physically atypical. Unless care is taken these two general types of pupils, because both present unique problems, are likely to be thought of as belonging in the same category. Although both groups are in need of special attention, the kind of special treatment essential for behavior cases is quite different from the types of specialized education desirable for the feeble-minded, the several types of physically handicapped, and the gifted.¹⁸ The latter groups are removed from the regular classes because they cannot profit adequately from the educational procedures commonly found in the typical classroom and primarily designed for normal children. Although these same causes for removal from regular classes may be operative for behavior cases, at least for some of them, the primary cause for transfer to a truant or parental school is maladjustment which manifests itself in truancy, incorrigibility, and other unconventional forms of behavior.

Segregation *may* be the most efficient and the most economical means for creating the desired educational program for the mentally superior, the mentally inferior, and the physically handicapped. It does not follow, however, that education in segregated groups for behavior cases is the best plan for this type of child. In some cases the elements causing maladjustment are aggravated by the school situation and in a few cases, they are actually created there. In most cases, however, the environment outside the school furnishes the cause. Maladjustment in school may be only an overt manifestation of the lack of harmony between the individual and his general environment. It is usually the objective of the behavior centers to help the child remove or conquer the disturbing factors so that he may again return to the regular classes and become a normally adjusted individual. Since this is the objective and

¹⁸ The administration of school provisions for these latter groups of atypical children is treated in a subsequent chapter.

since for many cases the causes for truancy and incorrigibility lie within the school, the home, or the immediate community and are of such a character that they will respond to corrective measures, it may be desirable to effect the adjustment without the necessity of labeling the child as a transfer from a truant or parental school. It is at this point where visiting teacher and attendance service developed to a high professional level may render assistance not fully exploited in the past. No doubt the ease with which transfers may be made to special centers determines in part the amount of responsibility assumed by the local school and the extent to which teachers and other professional workers in a school will strive to discover the causes and to solve the problem cases. The entire problem of segregation of behavior cases is in need of intensive study to ascertain its distinctive values.

PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICE

Space will not permit nor is it necessary to rehearse at this point the developments in education and related sciences which have resulted in the important part played by psychology in current educational procedures. Suffice it to say that at the present time very few, if any, schools, at least in the cities, operate without some types of psychological service. Every classroom teacher is confronted with instructional problems involving individual pupils or groups of pupils, with problems presented by exceptional pupils, with the need for surveying the talent and achievement of groups of children, and many other types of problems for the solution of which psychological data are essential. In all schools, but more especially in the systems in which specialists in psychology and child study have not been appointed, the pertinent data are gathered, at least in a limited fashion, by classroom teachers. As the work developed in scope through the discovery of new facts and new techniques and the preparation of new instruments for the measurement of pupil abilities and as the un-

questioned values of the work were demonstrated, progressive schools found it impracticable to assign to regular teachers and supervisors all the functions implied in adequate psychological service. In the larger school systems provision for such service was made through the organization of bureaus of research, psychological clinics, or departments of child study with experts in charge. Such specialists do not supplant the teachers or supervisory and administrative officers but coöperate with them in the interests of pupil welfare. It is to the latter bureau or department type of organization that the term "psychological service" has been more commonly applied.

The titles of bureaus for psychological service differ as widely as do the bureaus themselves. In some cities the research bureau includes some phases of child-study activity among its numerous other functions while in other cities separate departments for child study have been established. No doubt the amount and kind of service rendered depends in part upon the type of organization that prevails and the size of staff available in a given city. A common purpose, however, underlies the psychological service in the majority of places in which it has been established. In virtually all of the psychological bureaus, activities connected with pupil welfare and adjustment problems—exclusive of regular teaching, supervisory and administrative functions, and activities relating primarily to the physical welfare of pupils—are brought together under one central department which is almost universally manned by specialists in psychological technique.¹⁹ In some instances a distinction is made between the educational clinic and the psychological clinic. Where such distinction prevails the educational clinic deals chiefly with specific difficulties of individual pupils in school-subject achievement whereas the psychological clinic usually specializes in the observation, diagnosis, and adjustment of defective or malad-

¹⁹ Gertrude H. Hildreth, *Psychological Service for School Problems* (World Book Co., 1930), p. 18.

justed pupils.²⁰ It is easy to see how these two types of investigation might overlap in the case of certain pupils.

Hildreth obtained by questionnaire a tabulation of the functions of specialists in this field now at work in the schools of the country. She also analyzed the reports in professional literature of the actual and the theoretical functions of child-guidance specialists and research bureaus in educational institutions and in public-school practice. From these two sources the following list of functions of specialists in psychological service was derived:²¹

A. Measurement and statistics

1. The selection and administration of standardized intelligence and achievement tests. (This function is usually shared with teachers and administrators.)
2. The administration of school surveys of the mental capacity and achievement of pupils.
3. The use of rating scales and questionnaires for obtaining additional information about the mental traits of pupils.
4. The construction of tests and rating scales for both service and research functions.
5. Teacher training in use of psychological techniques.
6. The use of suitable statistical procedures in studying and reporting psychological data.

B. Study and guidance of individual pupils

7. The identification of exceptional pupils—the mentally subnormal and the gifted, the unstable and the handicapped.
8. The educational guidance and reëducation of exceptional children, including in some cases the organization and supervision of special classes and the assignment of pupils to special classes.
9. The study of exceptional children through interview and observation.
10. Differential diagnosis of the difficulties presented by problem pupils. This may include the organization and direction of clinical case study.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 20.

²¹ From Hildreth, *Psychological Service for School Problems*, pp. 23-26. Copyright 1930 by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

11. The diagnosis of pupils deficient in the skill subjects of the school curriculum; studies of pupils deficient in reading, spelling, or the techniques of arithmetic or handwriting, and of pupils with language handicaps and the like.
12. Educational counsel and guidance for individual pupils.
13. Vocational counseling for individual pupils.

C. Assistance in administration and supervision

14. The classification and grade placement of pupils. This function usually involves recommendations to principals or educational directors rather than responsibility for the actual placement of pupils in certain grades or the actual sectioning of groups of pupils.
15. Improvement of the marking system.
16. The organization of a record-keeping system for the department of research or the psychologist's office; the construction of record cards for the preservation of pupil records of mental development and achievement; coöperation with administrators in devising record systems for the school.
17. Reporting in most suitable form to school administrators, the board of education, patrons of the school, and the general public the findings resulting from psychological service; and carrying on publicity work where it is needed for expansion of the activities described.
18. Organizing psychological service in the larger schools so as to provide for the entire educational system a clearing bureau to which may be brought problems connected with the foregoing functions.
19. Maintaining files of test materials, instructional materials, and professional literature for the general use of the school staff.

D. Assistance in instruction

20. The interpretation of the results of measurement for improvement of instruction and pupil adjustment.
21. Remedial work in connection with deficiencies in the skill or tool subjects.
22. Diagnostic and remedial work with speech defectives.
23. Assistance to teachers in problems of instruction, including the choice of suitable drill materials for specific purposes, the use of check tests in skill subjects, and the use of graphic devices for indicating pupil progress, the improvement of teacher checking, and observation of pupil achievement.
24. The investigation and improvement of pupil study and work habits.

25. Curriculum construction, with particular reference to age and grade placement of instructional materials and provision for individual differences in achievement.

E. Research

26. Conducting research bearing directly or indirectly on school problems. This research is undertaken for the solution of some pressing problem brought by a teacher, or it is directed toward the solution of a problem affecting teachers generally.

F. Auxiliary functions

27. Education of parents with reference to educational problems affecting child welfare. The organization and direction of parent study groups.
28. The establishment of contacts between the home and the school. This function may be performed in conjunction with or independently of the function of parent education.
29. The establishment of contacts with private and state educational agencies and the social agencies of the community.

It is likely that there is no one school system in which those in charge of psychological service perform all the functions mentioned. A review of the list will reveal the many ways in which specialists in child study may render information and assistance to principals and classroom teachers. If it is remembered that these specialists have been brought into the school system to give *assistance* rather than *direction* and that their work has been organized into a *service* department, they may render untold benefits. Their aim is to be of assistance in securing a more effective application of the educational program and to make studies and investigations regarding educational problems and individual pupils referred to them by teachers and principals. Their specialized skills enable them to make types of investigations for which other members of the school personnel may not have the time or the necessary training. It is the hope of those who are engaged in psychological service that the data gathered by them will be used in the most effective manner, especially by classroom teachers, to improve the quality of the educational service rendered to pupils.

HEALTH SERVICE

From meager beginnings in the form of medical inspection, the health services of a modern program for public education have increased in number and in type until they encompass nearly every phase of the physical well-being of school children and, in some cities, children of pre-school age. Health service, as one phase of the broader program for health education,²² concerns itself with provisions for the discovery and correction of physical defects, the control and prevention of communicable diseases, the giving of periodic health examinations and follow-up to insure correction of defects, and provisions for the health of teachers. The scope of health-service activities of a typical health-education department may be observed in Table LXIII.

In the operation of a well ordered program for health it is not always easy to draw sharp distinctions between the activities which may definitely be classed as health service and those which are more closely allied to the other major phases of the broader program for health, namely, school hygiene, physical education, health instruction, special classes for the physically handicapped, and coöperation with the general health program of the community. The various staff members who are engaged to perform specialized services in the field of health service may also function with reference to other aspects of the health program. The school nurse who visits schools and homes in coöperation with parents, principals, and teachers, inspects children who are suspected of contagious diseases, gives first-aid treatments, examines those who return to school after illness, supervises the periodic weighing and measuring of children, and assists the physician and dentist in making physical examinations, functions indirectly as a teacher of health while she goes about her duties with reference to health service. In a similar fashion the physician, the

²² The broader program for health education is discussed in a subsequent chapter.

TABLE LXIII

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE ACTIVITIES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION IN A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM, 1927 *

Activity	Number of Cases
Examination, inspection, and vaccinations	
Special examinations by nurses.....	38,064
Physical examinations by doctors...	10,274
Emergency inspections by doctors...	2,080
Examinations by nurses for readmission after illness.....	28,149
Classroom inspections by nurses and doctors...	517,040
Sanitary inspections	874
Vaccinations	2,015
Subsequent treatments.....	7,348
First-aid treatments.....	28,397
Health lectures	1,894
Cards sent to parents.....	10,289
Clinics	
Medical.....	696
Surgical.....	207
Orthopedic.....	822
Dental.....	3,556
Eye.....	1,394
Tuberculosis.....	417
Referred to home physician.....	2,533
X-ray.....	51
Exclusions (total, 4,389)	
Diphtheria.....	70
Sore throat.....	545
Measles.....	209
Scarlet fever.....	40
Whooping cough.....	145
Mumps.....	651
Tuberculosis.....	13
Chicken pox.....	163
For observation.....	1,596
Pediculosis.....	588
"Colds".....	360
Operations	
Adenoids and tonsils	1,155
Nutritional work	
Number weighed.....	35,057
Temperature taken.....	6,086
Dental inspection.....	5,323
Orthopedic inspections.....	405
Referred to chief medical inspector for mental test.....	345
Home visits; nurses (4,925), doctors (28).....	4,933
Dental activities	
Fillings (402), extractions (920), treatments (701).....	2,023
New cases.....	712
Examinations.....	689
Day nursery; medical, surgical, eyes, ears, nose, and orthopedic....	4,899

* Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools (Schenectady, New York, 1927).

dentist, the dental hygienist, and the speech specialist may give significant health instruction while performing obligations more definitely classed as health service. Among the other members of a health staff are: the psychologist who serves as a specialist in a clinic or research bureau to examine individual children and to act as consultant regarding problem cases, the psychoanalyst who serves as a specialist in the child-guidance clinic and consults with teachers and parents regarding problem and behavior cases, the dietitian who serves as a specialist in charge of the cafeteria and teaches nutrition and foods, and the supervisor of special classes who directs and supervises the work in special classes for the handicapped and may supervise the schools at large to check and to correct unhygienic conditions.

Although these various specialists may function as members of a central department, their work is actually done in the local school units and much of it is done with reference to individual children. The services of these highly trained specialists have been requested because they are equipped by training and experience to examine specialized phases of child life for the study of which teachers and administrative officers do not have the time or the technical training. It must be remembered that the responsibility for the pupil rests with the teacher and the individual school and that primarily these specialists are available to render assistance and types of services which will enable teachers and others responsible for instruction to render the best kind of educational guidance to children.

Since the work of the specialists in the field of health service is definitely organized as a supplementary feature to help teachers and administrators to carry out in a more effective manner the general program for public education, there devolves upon those in charge of local school units the responsibility for so organizing and coördinating the work of health service with the work of teachers that the maximum results may be obtained. It is now common practice to equip new

school buildings with rather spacious and well equipped quarters for health clinics in which doctors, dentists, nurses, mental hygienists, psychologists, and speech pathologists may operate. In too many instances, however, these specialists function in an independent manner, performing their respective duties without adequate consideration for the ways in which they may serve teachers and the school as a whole. Coöperation between the service specialists and the teachers is so limited in amount that the real service features of the health program are lost. Quantities of data which would be of inestimable value to classroom teachers, health teachers, special-class instructors, and teachers of physical education in vitalizing their work and in building their instruction around the needs of individuals and groups of pupils are gathered and filed by the service specialists and never reach the other staff members coöperating in the general health program.

Attention was called previously to the fact that it is sometimes difficult to draw sharp distinctions between health-service activities and the activities which are classified among the other aspects of the program for health. Perhaps the extent to which it is difficult to make these distinctions is an index of the degree to which health service has been organized as an integral and permeating feature of the entire program for health. Administrative machinery can be established so that the health-service activities may become an integral and contributing feature of each of the other phases of health education. For example, the eye specialist may contribute information which will assist the classroom teacher in the assignment of seats to pupils. The general school physician may furnish data which will be of value to the teacher of physical education in grouping pupils for exercises and in the selection of activities. Nearly every type of health service will supply facts which may become the basis for various kinds of lessons in personal and general health. Teachers in turn may be encouraged to coöperate with the health-service department. Teachers may be trained constantly to observe

the physical condition of their pupils and to recognize any signs of abnormality. Suspicious cases, whether physical, mental, or emotional, may be reported immediately to the health or psychological clinic, thus assisting the specialists in performing their duties more efficiently. Such interchange of coöperative endeavor can prevail only if principals sense their responsibilities and proceed to the establishment of administrative procedures whereby an integrated health program may be attained.

WELFARE WORK

Among the social services carried on by the public schools is direct aid to children in the form of food, clothing, medical care, minor surgical operations, free dental service, free eyeglasses, and other services ministering directly to the physical wants of children. It has long been recognized that the school cannot deal effectively with the intellectual aspects of the curriculum when the physical bodies of children are not in a healthy, vigorous state. A recent pamphlet issued by the National Education Association points out that "a child who is undernourished is not alert to learn; a child who is hungry must have food before instruction; a child who is worried about his home cannot well give close attention to the affairs of the classroom."²³

Realization of the intimate relation between the physical status of children and their ability to do justice to school tasks may have been an essential factor in the development of a number of the forms of social service which have been discussed in the preceding paragraphs. No doubt many aspects of health service, attendance and visiting-teacher service, and the maintenance of behavior centers may definitely be classed as social-welfare work. Welfare work is therefore not an entirely new concept in public education. In many cities where it has been feasible the children of destitute families have

²³ *Childhood and the Depression: A Look Ahead*, the National Education Association (Washington, D. C., November, 1931).

been served free milk and free lunches, have been given shoes and clothing and such medical care as seemed imperative. In a few centers the funds and supplies for such welfare work are furnished by the board of education, but in the majority of cases various teacher and community organizations coöperate with the schools in supplying the needed services and materials. A survey by Strange of the welfare work in the elementary schools situated in the poorest sections of 187 cities with populations of 25,000 to 1,000,000 during the winter of 1931-1932 showed that contributions by teachers, solicitation from the public, school-earned funds, and parent-teacher organizations (listed in order of frequency) were the agencies responding most freely in aiding schools with relief work.²⁴ No doubt the recent severe economic depression has increased the amount and added new types of relief to the welfare work already taking place. Data gathered by Strange show that in the schools which responded to his inquiry free dental corrections in 1931-1932 had increased an average of 36.1 per cent over 1928-1929. Similar comparisons show that the number of eye-glasses furnished free increased 26.7 per cent while the number of cases in which tonsils and adenoids were removed free increased 13.3 per cent. Although a part of these increases may be due to the normal extension of services, a large proportion of the increase is the result of the unusual burdens for welfare work placed upon the schools during a period of economic stress.

Even though welfare work may be an incidental phase of the school's social services and may not be a part of the organized functions of public education, its existence places certain duties and responsibilities upon the principal and the teachers in certain buildings. Pupils in need of relief must be identified, the circumstances surrounding the case investigated, and administrative procedures inaugurated whereby

²⁴ C. A. Strange, *A Survey of Welfare Work in the Public Schools of Selected Cities*, Master's thesis, Northwestern University, School of Education Library 1933.

the needy may be cared for. Usually quarters must be improvised and a staff provided so that the welfare work may be properly administered. Outside contacts must be made to secure funds, food, and clothing; school entertainments, paper and rummage sales, and other money-raising activities must be organized. All of these activities command the time and managerial ability of the principal and teachers.

THE RELATION OF SERVICE AGENCIES TO THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The various service agencies which have been discussed are comparatively recent phases of the program for public education in that nearly all of them have developed as aspects of educational practice during the present century. As public education developed alongside of rather far-reaching changes in the industrial, social, political, and scientific phases of modern civilization, education itself experienced many fundamental changes. The program for public education assumed new proportions and types of services theretofore left to private individuals or other public bodies. The work of the schools became centered upon the all-round development of the "whole" child. The teaching act itself could no longer be content with purely academic tasks. All phases of child-life became the concern of the teacher. Educational practice became more technical and more scientific. In fact, many phases of the complete educational program became so technical and time consuming that the classroom teacher could hardly be expected to perform all of them. To understand thoroughly and to minister adequately to the groups of pupils assigned to her, the classroom teacher had need for types of technical information for the obtainment of which she had neither the time nor the training. Hence, it was deemed desirable to add to the school staff various specialists, organized into the different service agencies or departments, to render highly specialized types of services which seemed

essential to an effective modern program of public education.

Although the history of any one of the service agencies may not reveal clearly the above motives and general trends, yet it is apparent that in their present status they bear that relationship to the instructional program. The purpose of these departments is primarily to render service of a type similar to that rendered by special supervisors of arithmetic, art, or social studies. The teacher calls on these specialists for expert assistance in finding out what to do and how to proceed. In all instances, even when transfers are made to special classes, the responsibility for the case rests with the teacher and the school. It is for this reason that administrative officers, especially principals, must understand fully the relationships which service agencies bear to the work of the school and assume active leadership in coördinating the work of these specialists with the work of teachers. Administrative machinery must be established so that the facts gathered by experts may be accessible to teachers in the solution of their problems, and teachers in turn must be trained to use these specialized data and to coöperate with the service agencies.

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CHAPTER X

THE ADMINISTRATION OF LIBRARY SERVICE

The philosophy of education which regards the school as an institution in which children are intelligently participating in democratic living, calls for teaching procedures which do not limit the pupil to the confines of a single textbook for each subject.¹ The broader concepts regarding the manner in which classroom activities shall proceed and the manner in which children shall be directed and guided through the curriculum provided by the school has brought about significant changes in the requirements for instructional materials. The large quantity and the large variety of materials needed to effect the enriched and modified curriculum which has been permeating public-school practice cannot be supplied unless administrative arrangements are made to do it economically and efficiently.

In order to facilitate the administration of a modern school curriculum as well as to discharge more effectively certain new responsibilities which were devolving upon the schools, it was found not only desirable but essential that library facilities be provided for elementary schools. From meager beginnings² the school library, or at least the classroom library,

¹ S. W. Vought and Edith A. Lathrop, *Library Service*, U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 20, p. 24.

² In 1835 the legislature of the State of New York passed a law permitting a school district to provide a library. Similar legislation was passed in Michigan in 1837, in Connecticut in 1838, in Iowa and in Rhode Island in 1840, and in nine other states before 1860. By 1927 forty-one states had placed upon the statutes legislation regarding public school libraries. Even though school library legislation began to appear nearly a century ago, the development of school libraries was slow. As late as 1890 comments from state school officials from various

has grown until it has become a significant and indispensable feature in school work (Fig. 18). In some instances it has been made virtually the heart of the school.³



FIG. 18. INTERIOR VIEW OF LIBRARY, WHITTIER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, OAK PARK, ILLINOIS.

This library is attractively decorated with a floor of linoleum, decorative lighting fixtures, built-in book cases, and a beamed ceiling. The McCall system of ventilation, together with the direct radiation for heating, and thermostatic temperature control, provide for excellent heating and ventilation. Courtesy of Childs and Smith, Architects, Chicago.

As experience was gained in the wider use of instructional materials, which were made possible through the establish-

parts of the country indicated the inadequacies or complete absence of school libraries. The most phenomenal development of school library service has come within the past twenty-five years. From 1923 to 1929 the number of school libraries with 3,000 or more volumes increased from 947 to 1,982, an increase of over 100 per cent.

³ W. A. King, *The Elementary School Library* (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929), p. 8.

ment of school libraries or closer coöperation with public libraries, the library service in turn influenced and made possible further changes in classroom methods. Also, as library facilities became available for extensive use and were developed, the leaders in the field saw new ways in which the school or classroom library could be utilized to carry out more effectively some of the objectives of the school. In time the older functions of the library were expanded and new functions were added. As a result, library service in the schools has been delegated a variety of functions.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

One of the important functions of a school library is to provide a well rounded collection of reading material suitable for use by children of various ages.⁴ To carry on the kind of education that the modern school desires, it has been found that the textbook is by itself an inadequate tool and that it must be supplemented by a variety of other books, miscellaneous informational materials, and visual aids.⁵ Few schools are able to provide the large amount and variety of instructional materials needed unless there is some central organization within the school through which the materials may be circulated to the different teachers and pupils as needed. If the selection of materials for the library and library service is conducted in intimate relationship with the curriculum of the school, the library may render valuable service in the enrichment of classroom procedures and of the educational experiences of children.

A second function of the library is to provide guidance for children in the selection and use of reading materials. Coöperation between classroom teachers and the librarian has resulted in some schools in making all the resources of the

⁴ *Library Instruction, Elementary School*, Course of Study Monograph, No. 27 (Denver, Colorado, 1929), p. 7.

⁵ Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School* (Chicago, The American Library Association, 1930), p. 12.

library readily accessible to pupils during the time that a particular topic or problem is being discussed in the classroom. Through conferences between the teacher and the librarian or by the use of appropriate forms (illustrated in Fig. 19)

FORM 1	
.....	<i>Date</i>
.....	<i>Teacher</i>
.....	<i>Department</i>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. We are studying about: 2. Will you please help us by letting the following children look up references during their library period? 	
NAMES OF CHILDREN	TOPICS ASSIGNED

FORM 2	
<i>Department or Grade</i>	
<i>Teacher's Name</i>	
<i>Date</i>	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. General topic..... 2. Special assignments..... 	
TOPICS	ASSIGNED TO:

FIGURE 19. FORMS USED TO INTEGRATE LIBRARY SERVICE AND CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION.

From *Library Instruction*, Course of Study Monograph No. 27, Public Schools, Denver, Col., 1929.

the library may be made an integral adjunct to classroom instruction and children may be guided in their selection of materials in order that the time spent in the library may bring maximum returns.

Closely allied to the above is a third function, namely, to give, through story-telling and reading, a background for the appreciation of literature and a basis for the broad interpretation of life situations. One of the effective ways of getting children to desire and to enjoy good literature is to surround them with reading matter that is of high quality and of interest to them. Through extensive reading in a wide variety of fields children will broaden their concepts of the problems of modern life, widen the range of their observation, and gain vicarious experiences otherwise inaccessible to them.⁶ The library can make distinct contributions toward these objectives of the school.

To perform more effectively these purposes, the library has commonly assumed a fourth function, namely, to give instruction in the use of books and libraries. In order that children may become independent in the use of libraries, many schools have found it desirable to provide a certain amount of systematic instruction in the use of libraries. In some cities this work is delegated to classroom teachers of English, reading, or social studies, while in other cities the instruction is given by the librarian. Some cities have published library manuals or courses of study in the use of the library.⁷

The library has come to play a prominent part in the school's endeavor to establish strong motives for, and permanent interests in reading, which has been accepted as a major

⁶ Franklin Bobbitt, *How to Make a Curriculum* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924), Ch. vi.

⁷ *Library Instruction*, Course of Study Monographs, Nos. 27 and 28 and supplements (Denver, Colorado).

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May Ingles and Anna McCague, *Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries* (New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1930).

objective in elementary education.⁸ If reading is to play an important rôle in adult life and if it is to find its proper place among the leisure-time activities of people in general, it is perhaps essential to establish thoroughly during the school period of children the habit of using libraries. Many schools have initiated practices which endeavor to implant firmly the habit of using, not only the school library, but also the public libraries within the neighborhood. It is usually through the school library and its activities that pupils, before they leave the public schools, develop their interest in and make their contacts with the public libraries. The accomplishment of these and associated ends might be called a fifth function of the school library.

A sixth function commonly ascribed to the school library is to gather in a central place and to prepare for use all slides, pictures, magazines, books, and materials that will be used by teachers and pupils in classroom work. It is usually convenient to have within the school some agency responsible for the reception, inventory, classification, and the preparation for use of such instructional materials as are to be made available to several or all the teachers and groups of pupils. If the library undertakes to perform these services and keeps accurate, up-to-date files, teachers and pupils may discover without unnecessary loss of time what materials are at hand.

Other ways in which the library may render useful service, as posited by some writers, are to teach library etiquette,⁹ to aid in providing differentiation and the recognition of individual differences, and to aid in extracurricular activities by providing materials which stimulate intellectual interests, hobbies, and club activities.¹⁰

⁸ *Report of the National Committee on Reading, Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I* (Public School Publishing Co., 1925), p. 11.

⁹ R. D. Case, *The Platoon School in America* (Stanford University Press, 1931), p. 149.

¹⁰ W. C. Reavis and others, *The Elementary School* (University of Chicago Press, 1931), p. 255.

THE FUNCTION OF ORGANIZATION

It is the function of organization, whether library work or other phases of the school program are selected, to arrange for and administer any one aspect of school service so that the educational policies and the purposes for which the service was established may find expression in the activities of the school. As the school library has grown in importance it has assumed a variety of functions related to classroom instruction and the general objectives of education. It is the prime duty of those responsible for the organization and administration of library service to so manage its operation that the functions which have been delegated to it may be executed with efficiency and dispatch. The manner of attaining this objective differs for different school systems or for different schools within the same system. Local conditions and theories play no small part in determining the manner in which library services are organized and administered. The competent executive, however, will constantly scrutinize his practices, in the light of the functions he expects the library within his school to perform. The following are illustrations of how some schools are meeting the problem.

TYPES OF LIBRARY PROGRAMS

The elementary-school library is by no means a fixed and well defined entity. Numerous factors, such as location, equipment, internal organization, the type of elementary school, and the part the library is to play in the life of the school, affect the administration of library service so that it becomes extremely difficult to find a basis for classifying library programs. Miss Fargo suggests that the most fundamental and serviceable basis for the classification of elementary-school libraries lies in the school curriculum and has proposed that they be roughly divided into three groups, the

traditional, the reading laboratory, and the unlimited service library.¹¹

The Traditional School Library. This type of library can hardly be dignified by being called a school library. It usually consists of a small, unorganized, and poorly selected collection of books kept in a locked case in the hall or stored along with other school equipment in a convenient closet, or, if given more pretentious quarters, occupying one corner of the principal's office. A school in which the library is of no greater importance than is indicated by this description of the quantity and quality of the book collection and the space provided for it has little use for a trained librarian and extensive library service. Library instruction, if given at all, is entrusted to such training as the various teachers may choose to give. In some instances travelling collections of books furnished by outside library agencies or the children's department of a near-by public library are utilized. These outside services, however helpful, are seldom adequate so that library work in the schools may be said to be achieving the functions delegated to the library in a modern school. The traditional library, which is altogether too common in schools to-day, can make few contributions toward the enriched and broad curriculum which progressive schools are endeavoring to apply.

The Reading Laboratory. This type of school library has developed in response to changes in the school curriculum and methods of teaching, particularly as a result of the changes in the teaching of reading.¹² The enriched and broadened reading curriculum which began to develop about two decades ago, was given unusual stimulation and clearer interpretation by the *Report of the National Committee on Reading* in 1925.¹³

¹¹ Lucile F. Fargo, *The Program for Elementary School Library Service* (Chicago, American Library Association, 1930), Ch. v.

¹² *Ibid.*, Ch. vi.

¹³ Published as Part I of the *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.

In order to achieve better the broader objectives of reading, some schools have found it convenient to hold the reading classes right in the school library or in a room equipped to serve as a library as well as a classroom. Through this arrangement reading instruction may be given in a rather ideal setting, with materials for reference, both work-type, and recreational, easily and immediately accessible. Hence the name, *reading laboratory*.

Some of the features of this kind of organization for library service are readily discernible. The library room serves a dual purpose: (1) housing the library, and (2) serving as a classroom. In the latter sense successive groups of children come to the library for classes in reading just as they would go to another classroom for classes in arithmetic. Miss Fargo points out that:

One of the most significant characteristics of the centralized reading laboratory in the large school is to be found in the manner of attendance. The room is scheduled for group use like any other laboratory or classroom. It may be open for a short time before or after school, but in the main its hours tend to parallel school hours, circulation, if there be any, being carried on during class periods. There is limited opportunity for the attendance of individuals, either voluntary or at the behest of teachers. The room is full of pupils scheduled in class or platoon units and the teacher is too busy with these groups to give any considerable time to others. Not that the large group necessarily works as a unit. The skillful teacher knows how to vary her program to provide for individual differences within the unit. But the opportunity of John Henry Jones to read in the laboratory is pretty well limited to thirty or forty minutes once a week if he is 3A or less, and twice if he is a 4B or more.¹⁴

The reading-laboratory type of library is commonly found in platoon schools. The dual function of the director of the reading laboratory is suggested by the two terms, "library teacher" and "teacher-librarian." She is a teacher in the same sense of the word that a teacher of arithmetic is a teacher. She is a librarian in the same sense that the one in charge of

¹⁴ Lucile F. Fargo, *op. cit.*, pp. 75-76.

a public library is a librarian.¹⁵ In non-departmentalized schools each grade teacher may act as librarian during the time her class meets in the library.

Numerous modifications of the reading-laboratory type may be found, depending upon a variety of local factors. In some cities each of the elementary-school buildings is too



FIG. 20. A CLASSROOM LIBRARY ORGANIZED AS A READING NOOK IN A THIRD GRADE.

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Batavia, Illinois.

small or inadequately designed to make it administratively feasible to have a well organized reading laboratory within each building. In such cases each classroom is supplied with the supplementary instructional materials most frequently used by pupils of the respective grade (Fig. 20). In this way the materials that can be provided are continuously available for subjects other than reading. Through exchange relations teachers may borrow from one another for temporary periods such specialized materials as are needed for particular projects

¹⁵ R. D. Case, *op. cit.*, p. 157.

or topics. Pictures, visual aids, museum objects, maps and globes, historical documents, and reference sets may be exchanged by teachers or even taken from one building to another.

Library work in the primary grades of the laboratory schools of the University of Chicago is organized on a basis which may be classified as the reading-laboratory type. Each classroom for the kindergarten and Grades 1 to 3, inclusive, is supplied with many attractively illustrated books which are arranged on tables and conveniently accessible to pupils at all times. Such organization facilitates the development of appreciation and of interest in books. From their early school experiences, while they are learning to read, children are learning to realize the relation of reading to their own experiences. As a result, the average child reaches the fourth grade with a friendly feeling toward books and with the ability to read with independence and a fair degree of fluency.¹⁶ At this point departmental teaching is begun. To satisfy the expansion of interests in the middle and upper grades, an abundance of books covering a wide range of content is needed. These can be handled most effectively and economically in a school library. Consequently, for Grades 4 through 6 a different kind of library organization is provided.

An analysis of the ways in which the reading-laboratory type of organization permits the library to perform the functions ascribed to it would no doubt show many variations, depending upon local conditions and the efficiency of its administration. In general, however, the reading laboratory should be well suited to discharge effectively the second, third, and fourth functions named above, and to a lesser degree the first-named function. The fact that there is no central library room within the building will make it difficult to discharge the functions of establishing through practice the habit

¹⁶ Evangelino Colburn, *A Library for the Intermediate Grades*, Publication of the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago, No. 1 (1930), p. 3.

of using libraries (except in so far as neighborhood public libraries are used) and to gather in a central place and to prepare for use all slides, pictures, books, etc. The latter handicap is sometimes overcome by having a clerical staff in the superintendent's office or some other central organization which serves the several buildings within the city.

The Unlimited-Service Library. The chief characteristics and scope of activities of the unlimited-service type of school library may be ascertained from a statement by Miss Fargo:

It is not hard to see how, when the school goes over to this enlarged conception of its functions, there arises a need for very complete library service within the walls. "An elementary school library," writes a supervisor in a western city, "should be to the school what the public library is to the community."* It would be difficult to find a better description of what we have designated as Type 3, the school library of unlimited service.

Now the public library is far more than a center for reading and circulating books. It is a service bureau open to every individual in the community. To it come the artist in search of textile designs; the lawyer preparing a brief on the physiological aspects of night labor for women; the manufacturer desirous of statistics on the production of wood pulp paper; the mother seeking information on child psychology; the high school girl looking for directions for the making of sealing-wax knick-knacks; the small boy experimenting with electrical apparatus. For each and all there is printed information in books or accessible through files, periodicals, and picture collections. Also, there is individual help at the point needed: a list of books for the club woman studying French art; directions for the young man bent on overcoming deficiencies in his cultural education; painstaking search for a formula requested by a paint manufacturer; personal encouragement and direction for boys and girls in their quest for suitable reading, either factual or recreational.

When it is said, then, that the elementary school library serves the school community as the public library serves the city or village, what is meant is that it attempts to touch every pupil and to provide enrichment for the entire curriculum: science, vocational guidance, civics, drawing, recreation, as well as reading and literature. It is not concerned with instruction in the mechanics of reading except incidentally, nor does it devote itself primarily to the supervision of

* E. R. White, "Cultivating the Reading Habit," *The Platoon School*, Vol. 3 (June, 1929), pp. 58-62.

reading. Instead, through expert organization, it provides and makes available to teachers and pupils alike that great reservoir of printed information and juvenile literature known as the children's library. It also provides a congenial, free, and stimulating reading atmosphere for pupils, together with personal guidance for each and every individual in the school whether it be a pupil in quest of "another story about dogs" or a teacher on the trail of an article concerning elementary dramatics. Along with this it shoulders at least a part of the responsibility for training children individually and in groups in efficient use of the library and its tools.¹⁷

The relationship which the unlimited-service library bears to the life of the school, and particularly its curriculum, may be illustrated by using a concrete subject such as social studies. An intermediate-grade teacher might find her class launching into an extensive study of America's system of transportation and how it grew. As the outline for the unit is developed a copy of it may be sent to the librarian who begins to assemble and organize such materials as are available on early modes of transportation, and the improvement of transportation as a result of the development of better roads, canals, railroads, automobiles, and aeroplanes. Biographies of the pioneers in the development of transportation by water, rail, and air; pictures, films, and slides; magazine articles and clippings of recent exploits and inventions; and related museum objects would be assembled. As the topic develops in the classroom some basic materials may be charged to the teacher and delivered to the classroom to be immediately accessible to all pupils. As individual topics or problems are selected by individual pupils or groups of pupils and as the children come to the library for sources of information, the librarian, having had intimate contact with the progress of the unit, is in a position to give expert guidance and assistance to the pupils. The library thus becomes the center around which the heart of the school revolves.

Attendance at the library is not confined to before and after school hours because the library room is occupied con-

¹⁷ Lucile F. Fargo, *op. cit.*, pp. 91-93.

tinuously by scheduled reading classes. Although it is common practice to have the library program arranged so that every class in the school may have one or more hours per week in the library, the periods so occupied are devoted to free reading and reference work. Consequently, the presence in the library of a given class does not prevent individuals or committees from other classes from coming to the library to pursue their special interest. The library is thus available to everyone in the school at any and all times. Special topics and problems may be investigated at the time that interest in them is keenest. Various administrative techniques have been devised for the management and control of pupil traffic and the total attendance in the library during any one hour.

As with the other types of library organization, the unlimited-service library will be found in many and varied forms, depending on local conditions. Perhaps one of the best illustrations of this type of library is the organization for library service for Grades 4, 5, and 6 in the elementary school of the University of Chicago. An excerpt from Miss Colburn's description of its practices follows:

The children of Grades 4, 5, and 6 (six groups in all) report daily to the library for a free reading period of one-half hour. The class procedure, which varies but little from day to day, is as follows:

Those children who bring with them books which they have not completed, go directly to their seats at the tables and begin their reading. Others return books to the loan desk, and then pass to the shelves to make other choices. Some children may go directly to the teacher in charge and ask for help in finding certain material, and some may go to the magazine racks or to the encyclopedias. Others may consult the bulletin boards for suggestions before approaching the shelves or the teacher. When a selection has been made, the child signs the charge card, as described above and leaves it on the teacher's desk.

All are engaged in purposeful activities from the start, and as a rule the entire group is settled and absorbed within two or three minutes at the most. Occasionally a child chooses to do an assigned lesson during this period, and in that case he may be engaged in writing a part of the time. If a child completes his book during the period, he quietly returns it and takes another.

The teacher in charge is not often engaged in any sort of class instruction during the reading period. Her work is with individuals, aiding and guiding them as needed, and sometimes merely observing them. Questions concerning the content of a book read are asked only in exceptional cases when the teacher wishes to test some individual. An atmosphere of quiet prevails, and each child is engrossed in his own work. Very rarely does a child waste any time in the room. This situation is explained by the fact that the reading is motivated by the children's own interests. There is something contagious about the atmosphere of industry; and the child, who under other conditions would be easily distracted, applies himself steadily here.

A wide variety of material is being used during each class period, as is revealed by frequent investigation. Seldom are two children reading the same book. Some are following up interests aroused in other classes, using encyclopedias and various reference materials; others may be doing some purposeful reading prompted by interest in out-of-school projects, such as chemistry experiments, planning a party, or a piece of construction work. Still others will be reading just for pleasure. At the close of the period a signal is given, and the children pass to another class, taking their books with them for use in free periods or for home reading.

There is a slight variation in the procedure one day of the week, when the children are required to record their readings. Each child is expected to keep in his notebook the titles of all books read at home and at school, together with the authors and the dates upon which such readings were completed. If only a part of the book was read, the number of pages or chapters is indicated. Once a week he transfers this record to the permanent sheet which is kept on file in the room. This work takes but a few minutes of the thirty allowed for reading. Fourth-grade children require more careful supervision in this matter than do the older children; and so they are required to make their entries on cards at the teacher's desk, and the teacher has the records copied onto the permanent forms.

In connection with the work in the reading room there is much incidental teaching done. Reference has been made to the incidental training in library technique. In addition, opportunities constantly present themselves here, as in every classroom, for training of civic and moral nature. Respect for the rights of others, courtesy, coöperation, honesty in keeping records, are all found to be essential. Proper seating and lighting, correct posture, and the removal of wraps when in the room are some of the items relative to health instruction which demand stressing.

the suggestions of various teachers to foster desirable reading attitudes, and with few exceptions the children always manifest a purposefulness in the work. The teacher in charge makes many suggestions both to individuals and to groups concerning desirable materials, but makes no demands. When a child asks for a good book, she usually suggests several of the kind sought and then throws the responsibility of selection upon the child himself. This method insures the teacher more frequent opportunity to direct choices than would result from other methods, especially from the method of choosing for the child a book which does not satisfy him. It also increases the child's self-reliance to some extent. Indirect guidance is received also from the various posters and lists of books which appear upon the bulletin boards. It takes longer for some children to find themselves in this sea of books than it does others. Pupils new to the situation often spend some time browsing around and becoming adapted. They sample many books before finding the kind which satisfies.¹⁸

An analysis of the plans for administering the unlimited service library would indicate that its organization lends itself to the attainment of the functions of a school library better than the traditional and the reading laboratory types. Casual observation might suggest that the unlimited-service library is weakest at the period where the classroom adaptation of the reading laboratory type is strongest, namely, in making readily accessible at all times and for all subjects the major supplementary materials for each class group. This disadvantage may be minimized by maintaining close coöperation between the librarian and classroom teachers and by permitting the latter to withdraw for brief periods for classroom use the materials pertinent to the development of a particular unit of instruction.

ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL OF LIBRARY SERVICE

The public library and the school are commonly recognized as dual agencies for effecting public education. Consequently there is a growing tendency for them to coöperate in providing library service for the schools. The reasons for

¹⁸ Evangeline Colburn, *op. cit.*, pp. 6-8.

such coöperation have been expressed by Miss Fargo as follows:

When the demand for school-library service first arose there was a general impression that the school was being well cared for if the public library furnished it with a small collection of books or, in effect, operated a school deposit station. The books were chiefly literary or recreational in character, and if the school felt the need of a few reference titles it bought them itself. These raised no real administrative problem, for they were too few. As the demand for books grew, the school offered to take a larger part in financing and the public library widened its activities to include more personal service until what had started as a bit of library extension evolved, as a rule, in one of two ways: it either grew into a coöperative plan for school library service, or the public library dropped out, leaving the school to assume full control.¹⁹

Although schools may be found in which all library service is provided and administered by the public library, coöperative administrative relationships have been established in most centers in which school-library service is not under the complete control and direction of the board of education. School-library service undertaken coöperatively by the public library and the board of education may include any one or more of a variety of arrangements as to the purchase of books and supplies, selection of personnel, space and equipment, routine management, and so on.²⁰ In fact, the variations are so numerous that it is difficult to find two cities which exhibit identical arrangements. However, the items regarding which agreements between the board of education and the public library are established follow a fairly uniform path. These have been summarized by Miss Fargo as follows:²¹

¹⁹ Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School*, pp. 387-388.

²⁰ G. K. Kelly, "A Public Library under the Control of the Board of Education," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 29 (May, 1929), pp. 699-702.

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 388-389.

Examples of cities in which various types of administrative control are in operation may also be found in U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 20, pp. 27-30.

The School Board Agrees

1. To provide, equip, and maintain school library quarters.
2. To include appropriations for library books in its budget.
3. To select and purchase reference books and supplementary sets out of funds appropriated, *or*
4. To turn over the entire appropriation to the public library.
5. To employ librarians recommended by the library and pay their salaries.
6. To concur in the appointment of the director.
- 7.
- 8.
9. To appropriate funds for a teachers' library.
10. To furnish and pay for school supplies used in the library.
11. To furnish transportation for classroom collections. Sometimes to furnish all transportation.

The Library Board Agrees

1. To provide expert advice in connection with the planning of rooms and equipment.
2. To supplement school appropriations. To make available to schools the general book resources of the library.
3. To select and purchase a limited group of books, *or*
4. To select and purchase *all* library books and periodicals.
5. To recommend librarians for appointment.
6. To appoint a director of school libraries and pay the salary.
7. To organize school libraries and assist in their administration by trained librarians.
8. To organize and administer classroom collections in schools without organized libraries.
9. To furnish quarters for a teachers' library and administer it.
10. To furnish and pay for regular library supplies, for binding, and for the repair of books.
11. To furnish transportation for special loans. Sometimes to furnish all transportation.

Although the opinion is held by some that the most efficient service will result if school libraries are under the complete

control of the board of education, there are certain advantages to be gained from coöperative administration. No doubt local conditions determine the desirability of one form of control over that of another. The recommendations of educational surveys show no decided trend for either form of control.²² A summary statement by Miss Fargo regarding the controversy is as follows:

It is evident to anyone comparing the advantages claimed for each form of administration that some on each side are based on wrong assumptions. For example, when the public library claims better service because provided by experts, it assumes that the school district will not employ professionally trained librarians. Unfortunately many large school districts do not, and small communities perhaps cannot. On the other hand, we are aware of plenty of remarkable examples of expert service given by professionally trained librarians in independent school libraries or in systems managed independently of the public library.

Another assumption is that the continuity of the library habit is broken if boys and girls must transfer at graduation from one library institution to another. The answer to this is that excellent school library service administered from whatever angle leads to the public library because it develops the reading habit and the power to use wider library resources while pupils are still in school.

On the other side, the claim that the school-directed library gets better correlated service assumes that the public library will not place direction in the hands of a competent personnel—that is, a personnel that knows both the school side and the library side. Again, we have plenty of shining examples to prove that this is a mistaken idea.²³

STATE PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL-LIBRARY SERVICE

The interest of the state in public-school-library service is not a recent development. An extensive investigation of state participation in public-school-library service by Koos revealed the fact that during the period from 1835 to 1860, fourteen states had placed upon the statutes legislation regarding

²² U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 20, p. 29.

²³ Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School*, p. 392.

school-library service.²⁴ By 1927 forty-one state legislatures had considered public-school libraries of enough importance to education to make laws for their establishment. The details of the law differ materially from one state to another. In twenty-two states authority is given to the state board of education to contribute some kind of service to public-school libraries. Koos has summarized the powers and duties granted to state boards of education as follows:²⁵

1. The appointment of the governing boards of state libraries and library commissions and their executive officers;

2. The promotion of the establishment and supervision of public school libraries;

3. The preparation and publication of book lists, the selection of books, and the making of contracts for prices of books for public school libraries;

4. The prescription of qualifications for, the training of, and the issuance of certificates to public school librarians;

5. The administration of state-aid funds for public school libraries;

6. The establishment and operation of traveling libraries;

7. The collection of statistics and the reporting of school library facts and conditions;

8. The making of rules and regulations for public school library management, traveling library operation, the administration of state financial aid, and the provision of standards for public school libraries.

Whether state participation in school-library service is conducted through the state board of education or through some other agency such as a state library commission, school administrators in most states may look to some state body for considerable assistance in developing a library program in their own schools. Some states publish extensive bulletins, standards, book lists, and even send out a state department official to assist local authorities in developing school libraries.

²⁴ F. H. Koos, *State Participation in Public School Library Service*, Contributions to Education, No. 265 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927), Ch. i.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 23-24.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT

The uncertainty of sources of revenue and financial support has been an important factor in retarding the development of school libraries. Although there is a growing tendency to increase the appropriations from public funds, the practice of raising funds for library purposes from private sources is still common.²⁶ The basis for ascertaining the amounts that schools should spend annually for library support varies. The Missouri survey recommends not less than fifty cents per pupil annually for books other than textbooks, with authority to pool these funds through the county library. Others believe that budget allowances for the library should represent a percentage basis of the total school budget exclusive of capital outlay.²⁷

A survey of libraries of the United States, conducted by the American Library Association and published in 1927, shows that, of the public schools reporting, probably less than one-half make a definite annual appropriation for the library.²⁸ Replies from twenty-seven public-school libraries show an average annual expenditure for the library of three-tenths of 1 per cent of the total income; the appropriation ranged from 0.09 per cent to 1.8 per cent. The average expenditure per pupil was seventy-three cents, the range being from six cents to three dollars. Meriam found that in Los Angeles the average annual cost of library books over a period of four years was seventy-one cents per pupil.²⁹ These figures represent appropriations and costs at a time when the library was of less importance in elementary-school procedure than it now is.

²⁶ S. W. Vought and Edith A. Lathrop, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 32.

²⁸ *Survey of Libraries in the United States*, Vol. III (American Library Association, 1927), pp. 271-286.

²⁹ J. L. Meriam, "Library and Textbook Service," in the *Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1930), p. 600.

Consequently future expenditures for the library will have to exceed any figures available at the present time.

To encourage the development of library work in local schools, sixteen states have made legal provisions empowering the appropriation of state financial aid for the establishment and maintenance of public-school libraries. The amount of state and county aid ranges from five dollars to five hundred dollars per school and from five cents to eighty cents per pupil. In fourteen of the states the local district must duplicate the amount of money granted by the state or county for school libraries.³⁰

LIBRARY STANDARDS

The increasing importance of the school library has led to conspicuous endeavors since about 1920 to formulate guiding principles and standards for the administration of library service. A number of these standards are based upon two reports published by the American Library Association and popularly known as the "Certain Standards" because the chairman of each of the joint committees was Mr. C. C. Certain. One of these reports dealt with the high-school library while the other one outlined the standards for elementary school libraries.³¹ The latter was prepared by a joint committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association and the School Librarian's Section of the American Library Association. The report of this joint committee dealt with nearly every aspect of elementary-school library organization and administration. An idea of the scope of the report may be gained from the following brief summary of the main divisions of the list of standards:

³⁰ F. H. Koos, *op. cit.*, p. 72.

³¹ The complete report of the Joint Committee on Elementary School Library Standards is given in the *Fourth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals (1925), pp. 326-353.

A. Definitions:

1. Aim
2. Scope
3. Use

B. Essentials:

1. Book collections
2. Other material
3. Equipment
4. Supplies
5. Records
6. School library supervisor
7. School librarians

C. Housing:

1. The library reading-room
2. Closets
3. Workroom

D. Administrative requirements:

1. Distinction between library service and clerical service

E. Library instruction:

1. Aims
2. Methods
3. Objectives
4. Minimum essentials of library work for Grades 1 to 6, inclusive

F. Appropriations:

1. Definition of requirements for annual appropriations and method of allotment
2. Essentials
 - a. Book collections and periodicals
 - b. Other materials
 - c. Furniture
 - d. Supplies
 - e. Ordering
 - f. Cataloging
 - g. Service

Those contemplating the establishment of an elementary school library or improving the organization and administration of one already established would do well to obtain stand-

ards such as those outlined above or similar ones prepared by state departments of education or city school systems.³² Every local administrator will recognize that published standards are usually designed as minimum standards and that the library in the local school may need to exceed or to make modifications of the standards in certain particulars, depending upon local conditions and the part the library is to have in the curriculum of the school.

PROFESSIONAL LIBRARY FOR TEACHERS

Much has been written regarding the desirability of professional growth on the part of teachers in service and the need for having supervisory officers and supervisory techniques that will stimulate professional growth, yet few elementary schools have provided, to say nothing of having exploited the possibilities of, a professional library for teachers within each elementary school. If teachers are to render maximum professional service of a high type, they must be provided with the materials which are the tools of the profession so that educational thought and practice may keep abreast of the changes which are rapidly taking place in public education. Regarding the professional library for teachers, Engelhardt makes the following statement:

The professional library should contain a complete historical file of all textbooks which have been used in that particular public school system, and also samples of the most modern instructional materials in the various subject fields. This library collection should include the yearbooks and publications of the learned educational societies and associations and the significant bulletins and reports of the state department of education, of the United States Office of Education, and of the superintendents of schools of comparable school districts. Teachers and other staff members should have available for use a

³² *Standards for Graded Elementary Schools*, State of Minnesota, Department of Education (St. Paul, 1929).

Lucile F. Fargo, *The Program for Elementary School Library Service*, Appendix II, Study Outline for Use in Determining the Local Program.

selection of the best books on method, technique, supervision, and administration. The professional journals should be among the periodicals which are made available primarily for use by the staff.

It would be well if the professional books could be housed in a separate library adjoining the teacher's workroom or made available there. The professional workroom should be attractive and well arranged for individual study and for conference work. The teacher should be able to work in this library during free periods or whenever it is convenient. In the small school system a professional library adjoining the superintendent's office is desirable. The professional library may also serve as a conference room and for board meetings.³³

THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN

An effective school librarian is one who is qualified by training, experience, and personality to administer a school library so that the library may discharge effectively the functions which have been delegated to it. This means that the person placed in charge of the school library must have administrative and executive ability as well as the educational qualifications necessary to perform significant duties with respect to the whole curriculum and teaching procedures in the school. A thorough knowledge of children's literature and library techniques are essential prerequisites. The operation of school libraries has been handicapped in the past because competent persons trained to perform the duties of a school librarian have not been available. To help meet this need heavy demands have been made upon the library schools. Recent years have witnessed a rapid growth in the number of schools offering courses for the training of school librarians. There were in 1930 eighteen accredited library schools.³⁴

The nature of the training for school librarians is a subject upon which there is much discussion and little agreement. Russel found in his study of school libraries that there was no general agreement regarding the most desirable training pro-

³³ Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Organization and Administration* (Ginn and Co., 1931), pp. 414-415.

³⁴ Lucile F. Fargo, "School Libraries in the United States," *Peabody Journal of Education*, Vol. 8 (January, 1931), p. 237.

gram for school librarians.³⁵ Some maintain that the school librarian should be first a librarian and second a teacher whereas others hold that these qualifications should be in the reverse order. The American Library Association has adopted a statement which points out that "expert school librarianship presupposes professional preparation including college preparation, or its equivalent, and the completion of (1) at least a year of work in an accredited library school or (2) an accredited school-library science curriculum of not less than sixteen semester hours. It also includes sufficient courses in education, or their equivalent in teaching experience, to provide the necessary educational background."³⁶ Koos states that "the literature indicates that a librarian should have sufficient education to secure a certificate to teach in the type of school in which she wishes to act as librarian."³⁷ Doubtless the educational qualifications of the librarian will become of greater importance as the library rises to a more important place in the work of the school and as library service is organized so that all the functions assigned to it are performed more effectively. If the school is large enough so that a library staff, in addition to the chief librarian, is needed, the other members of the staff will be selected according to qualifications formulated in terms of the tasks they are to perform.

The salary of the school librarian will depend in part upon whether she is a member of the public-library staff or an employee of the board of education on the basis of the salary schedule for teachers. If she is paid by the board of education the monthly salary may be higher but the longer vacation may result in approximately the same annual salary paid to the public-library staff. Statistics from forty-five cities reported in 1928 showed the average minimum salary for junior

³⁵ W. F. Russell, "The School Library Situation," *School and Society*, Vol. 24 (July 24, 1926), pp. 113-118.

³⁶ *School Library Yearbook*, No. II, American Library Association Education Committee (1928), p. 53.

³⁷ F. H. Koos, *op. cit.*, p. 117.

and senior-high-school librarians to be \$1,632 per year while the average maximum was \$2,421.³⁸ Since the elementary-school library may be said to be in the formative stages, the future ought to hold in stock some lucrative opportunities for persons who are interested and qualified to render service in this field.

ORGANIZATION FOR THE SELECTION OF LIBRARY MATERIALS

State laws,³⁹ state departments of education, and standardizing agencies have set up specifications for the number of volumes and, to a lesser degree, the kinds of books, that shall be found in the libraries of schools of various sizes. These are usually minimum standards and general recommendations regarding library materials essential to the maintenance of a minimum educational program. Such general standards frequently do not distinguish clearly between reference books, supplementary texts, and books for recreational reading, and the desirable proportion of these types, nor the possible modification of school-library standards in view of the presence or absence of public-library facilities. Thus there is constant need for each school to study and analyze its library materials in terms of local conditions and the type of curriculum and educational procedures to be applied in the school.

Although a number of excellent lists of books and materials are available for guidance in selection,⁴⁰ it is usually

³⁸ Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School*, p. 27.

³⁹ F. H. Koos, *op. cit.*, Ch. viii.

⁴⁰ *Graded List of Books for Children*, Chicago, American Library Association.

Elementary School Library List, Department of Education, State of Minnesota (St. Paul, 1921), and later supplements.

Evangeline Colburn, *A Library for the Intermediate Grades*, Publication of the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago, No. 1 (1930).

L. M. Terman and Margaret Lima, *Children's Reading* (D. Appleton and Co., 1931).

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A Guide to Books for Character, Vol. II (The Macmillan Co., 1930).

advisable to have classroom teachers, supervisors, and principals share with the librarian the responsibility for the selection of library materials. In school systems in which classroom teachers participate actively in the construction and revision of curricula, the teachers should be, and usually are, in an excellent position to indicate the kinds of instructional materials necessary to effect the educational program which has been forecast. If close relationships are maintained between the development of curricula and the selection of library materials, the school library is in a good position to execute its functions in relationship to the instructional program. It thus becomes necessary for the principal to organize the school staff, or, to arrange for the staff of his school to participate in a city-wide program, for the selection of library materials.

SAMPLE PROCEDURE FOR THE SELECTION AND PURCHASE OF LIBRARY BOOKS

The following description represents the general procedure for the selection and purchase of library and reference books in the public schools of Winnetka, Illinois.⁴¹ It is given here in the hope that it may be suggestive to principals and librarians in other schools.

At Winnetka books are purchased in small numbers almost constantly throughout the year, as special needs develop, or as new books especially suited to some phase of the school work appear, or as outstanding new professional books are published. Large orders are made twice a year; in the summer, after all the room collections have been returned and the building libraries have been gone over for binding, withdrawals, and replacements; in February and March, when the pupils' reading speeds up because of greater ability and there is need for fresh material to keep up the interest during the spring months. Hence, at this time, more attention is paid to new titles.

⁴¹ This outline of procedure was submitted to the writer April 25, 1933, by Miss Nelle A. Olson, Library Supervisor, Winnetka, Illinois.

In normal times the budget allowance for supplementary reading was about \$1.25 per pupil. There was also the sum of fifty cents per pupil for professional books and reference material for both teachers and pupils. (Just at present pupils pay a book rental fee of fifty cents and there is a budget allowance of thirty cents, making the total for supplementary reading about eighty cents per pupil. The allowance for reference and professional books is eleven cents per child.) The fine money, collected in the junior-high-school library for lost, damaged, or overdue books, is added to that library's book fund.

Each building has its own library, the funds being prorated according to enrollment. The professional library is centered in the main building, or junior-high-school building, though copies of the most used professional books are provided in the lower-grade buildings. The funds are not divided arbitrarily among the different departments. Freedom of division to cover new unit courses being introduced, or especially valuable new material available, seems more satisfactory in this system. However, care is taken to see that no department is slighted.

Requests and suggestions are received from teachers and supervisors constantly. As most of the requests for books have to do with social-science studies and projects, there is usually a conference with the supervisor, or with a teacher of experience who may have special knowledge of the literature of this subject, or who may have worked upon a faculty committee studying some phase of its development in the curriculum. If possible a copy of the title in question is obtained from a public library or book dealer, for careful examination or even for trial use in a classroom, to supplement the information from the most reliable book reviews. The selection is grouped by departments, rather than by buildings, as the needs for the buildings are rather uniformly the same.

For the spring selection, blanks are sent to all the teachers for suggestions of three types: new titles, new material upon

certain subjects (specific titles not being known by the teacher), and lastly, additional copies of books already in the library. These requests and suggestions are assembled in the library office. Then, after a careful checking, as noted above, also with material already available, orders are placed. Requests for any books which seem desirable but cannot be purchased at this time for lack of funds, or for other reasons, are held over and considered again at the time of the summer purchases.

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CHAPTER XI

PROGRAM FOR HEALTH EDUCATION

Health education is the sum of experiences in school and elsewhere which favorably influence habits, attitudes, and knowledge relating to individual, community, and racial health. Health education can be promoted only by emphasizing all aspects of health, physical, mental, social, moral. The ideal of health is not mere freedom from obvious deformities and pathological symptoms. It is the realization of the highest physical, mental, and spiritual possibilities of the individual.

Every phase of a child's training is conditioned by the state of his health. Susceptibility to disease, physical defects, or bad habits of living are handicaps to success in the intellectual work of children. Even if a child attains high academic achievements, they are of little value to him in life unless he also has physical vigor. Dr. Graves maintains that "it would seem poor economy for a school system to spend thousands or even millions of dollars for effective instruction, and then refuse to provide the relatively few dollars necessary to keep the pupils in such physical condition as would permit their taking advantage of this educational offering. Good health should, therefore, be made a definite part of every school program."¹ So important has become the question of health education that nearly every formulation of educational objectives has placed good health and the formation of desir-

¹ F. P. Graves, *The Administration of American Education* (The Macmillan Co., 1932), p. 117.

able health habits as an aim of the public schools.² Some writers have suggested that the general curriculum of the elementary school might be built around, or grow out of, the program for health education.³

HEALTH-EDUCATION PROGRAM SLOW TO DEVELOP

Although the paramount importance of health in the lives of individuals and in the welfare of a people has been recognized from an early period, training in health has been slow in gaining its rightful emphasis in public education. Interestingly enough, such periods of emphasis as this phase of education has witnessed have resulted largely from certain lacks or deficiencies discovered during times of war. Most of the progress which has been made in the field of health education has come since 1900 and more particularly since 1915.⁴ Out of 273 leading cities surveyed in 1900, only eighty-

² *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education* (Albany, The University of the State of New York, 1929).

Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1918, No. 35

³ "Since health education is both a subject field and a subject, since there are materials in every subject intrinsically related to health, and since it lends itself to the development of broad viewpoints in education in general, we believe that it makes an excellent beginning place in general curriculum making. We hope therefore to use the techniques, knowledge, and viewpoints developed in the health program as a basis for developing the other phases of the general curriculum program." *Principles and Practices in Health Education* (New York, American Child Health Association, 1931), p. 34.

⁴ "Although physical education is now one of the recognized aims of educational administration, it received little or no recognition during the rapid growth of schools and universities in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Physical education had no place in the development of the elementary school because it did not contribute directly to skills in the three R's and because the benefits of physical education activities were received as a natural by-product of life in the open. Likewise physical education had little or no place in the development of colleges and universities that prided themselves upon their interest in what they termed 'cultural' subjects and 'professional' training." J. B. Nash, *The Administration of Physical Education* (A. S. Barnes and Co., 1931), pp. 40-41.

three had placed enough emphasis upon the physical-education aspects of health education to appoint special directors of physical education.⁵

Another index of the recent progress in health education is the very rapid development of physical education since the World War. Although some of the states had physical-education legislation previous to the World War,⁶ most of the laws regarding physical education have been placed upon the statutes since 1915.⁷ By 1930 thirty-seven states had passed physical-education laws, thirty-two states had prepared manuals, and twenty-two had state directors.⁸ Over 90 per cent of the children of the country live in the states that have physical-education laws. The most common practice (75 per cent of the schools) is to set aside five periods per week for physical training. Time allotments vary from twenty-five to 1,650 minutes per week for Grades 1 to 6, inclusive, with a median of 513 minutes per week.⁹

Obviously physical training is only one phase of health education. But health instruction and health service were also late in developing in the school.¹⁰ The tardy development of the latter two important aspects of health work is due largely, not to the unwillingness of boards of education to assume the responsibility for the health of school children, but to the lack of funds and to the reluctance of the people to allow the schools to assume the additional burden, which was be-

⁵ J. B. Nash, *op. cit.*, p. 45.

⁶ North Dakota in 1899, Ohio in 1904, and Idaho in 1913.

⁷ T. A. Storey and W. S. Small, *Recent State Legislation for Physical Education*, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1918, No. 40.

⁸ J. B. Nash, *op. cit.*, p. 47.

⁹ C. H. Mann, *How Schools Use Their Time*, p. 118.

¹⁰ The beginning of school health work was made in Boston in 1894 following a series of epidemics among school children. Chicago began health work in schools in 1895, New York in 1897, and in Philadelphia in 1898. See: T. D. Wood and H. G. Rowell, *Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools* (W. B. Saunders Co., 1927), p. 18.

lieved to be a responsibility of the home.¹¹ The average time devoted to health instruction in Grades 1 to 6, inclusive, has increased from sixty-four minutes per week in 1904 to 245 minutes per week in 1926.¹² At the present time many cities give much more time than this to health teaching while others spend much less time upon it.

THE SCOPE OF HEALTH EDUCATION

The problem of health education has much wider ramifications than one might suppose. There is still current, even in the minds of many school workers, the notion that health education consists of a little instruction in personal hygiene and one or two daily periods for physical education, which in many schools consist of unorganized play during recess periods. Desirable as these activities may be, they constitute a very narrow view of the scope of health education.

Since the ultimate aim of health education is a healthy, happy, efficient member of society, it becomes the responsibility of the health program to train the child in healthful behavior—behavior which is physically, mentally, emotionally, and socially healthful. Nearly all phases of the work of the school, as well as many of the child's home and community relationships, have to do with health. More specifically, the field of health education may be divided into the following major divisions:¹³

1. *School hygiene*, which is concerned with the healthful physical environment of the school child and the conduct of healthful school activities. It is essential that school buildings be located and constructed so that the proper light and ventilation may be available for all activities.* School buildings, playgrounds, all types of equip-

* Report of New York State Commission on Ventilation.

¹¹ Fred Engelhardt, *Public School Organization and Administration* (Ginn and Co., 1931), p. 374.

¹² C. H. Mann, *op. cit.*, p. 122.

¹³ Summarized from K. W. Wootten, *A Health Education Procedure* (New York, The National Tuberculosis Association, 1926).

ment and materials should be sanitary at all times.† Hygienic instruction implies that the possible effects upon the health of children should be a major consideration in deciding upon the length of school day, order of subjects in the program, length of periods for recitation and study, recess and rest periods, forms of discipline, the seating of pupils with reference to sources of light and distance from blackboard and maps, and many other factors.

2. *Health supervision and health service* with adequate provision for the correction of individual physical defects. The personnel of the health service department is usually responsible for the control and prevention of communicable diseases, for the giving of periodic health examinations, for making inspections, for checking up to insure correction of defects, and for provisions for the health of teachers. The school staff which assumes the responsibility for these duties are physicians, dentists, and nurses, with the coöperation of teachers, principals, and supervisors.

3. *Physical education*, including supervised play indoors and out-of-doors, athletics, corrective gymnastics, relief drills, rhythmic interpretation, and folk dancing. Physical education includes all the big muscle activities.

4. *Health instruction*, which concerns itself with the imparting of knowledges which may guide children to live in a healthful manner and to establish habits and principles of living which throughout their school life, and in later years, will assure that abundant vigor and vitality which provide the basis for the greatest possible happiness and service. In recent years, due largely to the rapid increase in deaths and injuries from accidents, many schools have found it desirable to expand the field of health instruction to include safety education. Considerable emphasis is placed upon the prevention of accidents as an activity in the program of health.

5. *Special classes* for the various groups of handicapped children. A separate chapter will be devoted to a discussion of the problems pertaining to the administration of special classes.

6. *Establishment of coöperative relationships with the homes and the community in general* so that the health program of the school may operate in relation to the larger health problems of the community.‡ Sympathetic and helpful coöperation from the home is a prime essential if the endeavors of the school regarding child health are to make lasting impressions. Much of the health instruction per-

† L. M. Terman and J. C. Almack, *The Hygiene of the School Child* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929).

‡ G. T. Palmer (Director), *A Health Survey of Eighty-six Cities* (New York, American Child Health Association, 1926).

tains to habits and activities which must be carried on at home. This can hardly be accomplished by children if parental attitudes and influences are unsympathetic.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ORGANIZATION

One cannot view the scope and complexity of health education without recognizing the extreme importance of an effective organization in order that the work of the numerous individuals who share responsibilities in the field may be properly coördinated. One may find among those employed in health work teachers of physical education, health teachers, teachers of science and other subjects of the curriculum, physicians, dentists, psychiatrists, social workers, and speech specialists. Frequently these individuals bring with them, through training and experience, attitudes and points of view that are quite dissimilar and all too often out of harmony with the principles which should govern a well-articulated health program. Generally the point of view and the specialized training of these health workers are such as to disqualify them for general leadership in this field and from assuming the responsibility for coördinating those activities of the school which have a bearing on health.¹⁴

The differences in point of view have led to a division among civil and municipal authorities of the responsibilities for the health activities carried on within the schools. Whether such division of authority exists in a particular city, or whether the board of education has full charge of all the related health work, it is quite apparent that the most important administrative problem of the schools to-day with reference to health education is that of coördinating the efforts of all into a coöperative working unit.

¹⁴ Fred Engelhardt, *op. cit.*, p. 376.

ORGANIZATION FOR HEALTH EDUCATION WITHIN A SCHOOL DISTRICT

The wider health program of a city, usually conducted under the auspices of the department of public health, park boards, and recreation and playground boards, includes duties and activities that are frequently beyond the scope of the work of the schools. These civic agencies promote and participate in many types of health work directly related to the children of school age and to the objectives in health education which the school is trying to attain. In fact, the extent to which these civic goals that they have set for themselves in the wide city program for health and recreation are attained may depend in large measure upon the effectiveness of the work done with children in school before they join the ranks of adult citizens.

As far as all the related health work of school children is concerned, it is essential that it be organized under one central board so that proper coördination may be obtained. This applies to out-of-school play and recreation as well as the in-school activities.¹⁵ Although the health work as it pertains to school children is still divided among several independent agencies in many cities, professional literature is quite emphatic in its recommendations that all phases of the school's health work should be organized and administered by the board of education. The following statement from the recent Chicago survey illustrates this point of view.

It is always a mistake for the schools to be organized so that agencies other than a board of education are responsible for the ad-

¹⁵ "The school-age children constitute an administrative group which must be organized by the public school if universality is to be sought.

"An analysis will here be made to show why it is necessary for this age group to be organized by the public school if we expect to approach an equalization of play opportunities for all children. Even at the present time it is being adequately done by some schools." J. B. Nash, *The Organization and Administration of Playgrounds and Recreation* (A. S. Barnes and Co., 1927), pp. 136-137.

ministration of vital and indispensable services in the schools. They may be used effectively in coöperative relationships, but authority and responsibility should go together. In January, 1932, when the commissioner of health, faced with the necessity of retrenchment, announced that all school health work other than control of communicable disease, which is required by law, would be discontinued, the school system found itself deprived of what all school officials regarded as necessary services. The value of health service is too well established for school administrators, who know the facts, to choose to eliminate this work. Thus, the crisis in the Chicago schools presents an opportunity for determination of policy in these matters. The need of a policy that shall express the hopes of the board of education for school children and shall center the responsibility where it clearly belongs is indicated in the following summary of the situation.¹⁶

To provide a comprehensive and effective program for health education, some school systems have developed very interesting organizations.¹⁷ Only one or two of these can be given here. Figure 21 shows a proposed plan for the administration of health education in a small school system.

The first step in reorganizing the health program is to prepare a clear statement of what it is hoped to accomplish in a health-education program; the second is the selection of the staff and the coördination of all the agencies made available, with duties and responsibilities clearly defined and coöperating with the one aim in view. Thirdly, there should be instituted a system of records and reports which when prepared make a careful analysis of the work done.

¹⁶ J. F. Williams and F. W. Maroney, "Health and Physical Education," in the *Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois*, Vol. III (1932), p. 145.

¹⁷ *Five Years in Fargo: the Commonwealth Fund Child-Health Demonstration* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1929).

Maud A. Brown, *Teaching Health in Fargo* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1929).

E. O. Melby and M. F. Palmer, *Health Education in Small School Systems*, University of Minnesota, College of Education Research Bulletin, Vol. 29, No. 30 (November, 1926).

R. C. Jacobs, *An Effective Health Program*, *Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1930), pp. 385-394.

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Thus, from time to time, organization, procedures, and results can be checked against each other.

It is the judgment of the survey staff that the superintendent of schools should be responsible for coördinating the health-education program in the schools. The system is not large enough to warrant the employment of a directing head. The superintendent must take advantage of the skills (Fig. 21) and specialized training of the staff

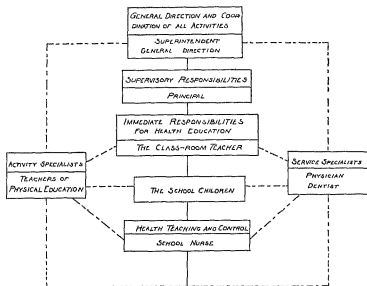


FIG. 21. PROPOSED PLAN FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF HEALTH EDUCATION IN A SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Aurora, Minnesota, Survey.

members to help plan the program and to work out the organization. The problems concerned in working out such a plan may be summarized as follows:

- Coördination of the activities of the present staff by the superintendent of schools.
- Determination of the objectives of health work.
- Development of health teaching under the direction of a school nurse with the requisite training.
- Supervision of the physical activities in classroom,

gymnasium, and playground by the physical-education teachers.

An accurate system for keeping record of all the activities and of the health-education staff members

A definite program of follow-up work to secure correction of physical defects.

Increasing the value of the large number of home calls made through carefully kept records of such calls and the situation found at the time of each visit.

A more economical organization of the hygienic service now rendered by the school to allow time for a larger number of rooms visited in the interest of health control.¹⁸

Figure 22 shows the comprehensive philosophy underlying the program for health education in the public schools of Rochester, New York. Although the medical service is regulated and conducted by the City Health Bureau and the dental service is sponsored by the Rochester Dental Dispensary, it has been possible for the schools to integrate this work very carefully so that effective instruction might result. How this is accomplished will be shown later as the organization in individual schools is described.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AND THE PROGRAM FOR HEALTH

The effectiveness of educational theories and policies depends in no small measure upon the extent to which those working directly with the children are able to apply the proposed principles. It is becoming more commonly recognized that health education is not merely a special subject but a way of living. The materials for health education are as broad as the school curriculum and all its related activities, and must grow out of and be a part of all the child's experiences.¹⁹

¹⁸ Fred Engelhardt and others, *Aurora Survey* (University of Minnesota Press, 1927), p. 59.

¹⁹ "In the first place we believe that health education is definitely a problem of the public schools, and as such should be dealt with as a part of the regular curriculum program by the organization within the school system intended to deal with such matters, namely, the teacher working under the direction of the general curriculum committee with

HEALTH

An Educational Objective Developed through a Three Section Program

Elementary—Junior High School—Senior High School

Health Protection	Health Teaching	Health Development
Objectives 1. To detect physical defects for the purpose of correcting removable conditions. 2. To prevent and control communicable disease. 3. To recommend such school equipment and practices as will furnish the best possible environment for the health of the pupils and teachers. 4. To secure the co-operation of the home in health protection activities.	Objectives 1. To develop right attitudes and high ideals toward health and health practices in life situations. 2. To give students information which will enable them to improve and conserve their own health. 3. To aid in establishing specific health habits. 4. To co-operate with parents and others in contributing to the health of the community.	Objectives 1. Physical — To develop organic power, vitality, posture and neuromuscular skills for meeting life situations. To develop traits of character such as courage, initiative, perseverance, co-operation, loyalty, honesty, justice, and courtesy. 2. Mental — a. To gain a systematic understanding and appreciation of physical laws, rhythm, and achievement. b. To develop interest and open-mindedness in health as will be of value in leisure time.
Activities 1. Medical Services a. Medical Inspection (Health Bar) b. Pre-school child. c. School child. d. Dental Service (Health Bureau) e. Dental Inspection (Dentist's Office). 2. Morning Health Inspection. 3. Physical Examinations a. Morning physical examinations and team to determine physical fitness. b. Tests for sight, hearing and speech. c. Tests for discerning under- (Special Class Department). 4. School Sanitation a. Standards of heat, light, ventilation, and cleanliness. b. Proper eating, drinking, food hygiene, and toilet facilities. 5. Hygienic Arrangement of School Program. a. Alteration of subjects. b. Extra-curricular activities. c. Mid-day rest period. d. Lunch Room Service. e. Accident Prevention. f. Teacher Health Service.	Activities 1. Instruction in Hygiene and Physical Health. 2. Health Talks by Special Health Education Teachers to motivate general health program. 3. Coordination and correlation with other subjects in the curriculum. 4. Individual Conferences. a. Pupils. b. Parents. 5. Health Campaigns and Special Emphasis Weeks. 6. Assembly Programs and Class Meetings. 7. Special Demonstrations, Exhibits. 8. Classroom Projects. 9. Accident Prevention 10. First Aid.	Activities 1. Recreation. a. Games. b. Informal Exercises. c. Rest. 2. Programs in Large Muscle Activities for Physically Normal Pupils. a. Gymnasium exercises. b. Specialized instruction. c. After-school athletics and recreation. 3. Programs in Leadership—Development for the Physically Superior Normal Pupils. a. Through gymnasium and recreation. b. Through special training. 4. Special Classes for Physically Handicapped Pupils. a. Nutrition. b. Open air. c. Occupational therapy. d. Better health. e. Hard of hearing. f. Sight saving. g. Speech correction (Special Class Dept.)

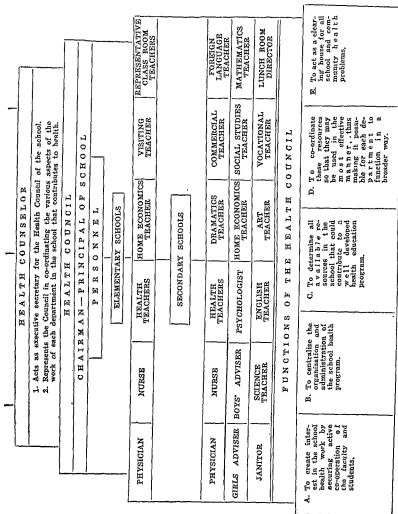


FIG. 22. THREE-SECTION HEALTH PROGRAM.

In addition to the brief periods set aside for direct instruction, there are numerous opportunities to utilize content from other subjects and activities which will contribute to the purposes of health education. The importance of correlating health instruction with other subjects of the curriculum has been recognized for some time, yet it is only recently that scientific studies have revealed the true nature of the opportunities of this procedure. The person most strategically situated to utilize such correlations is the classroom teacher. Then there are also such factors as the general physical condition of the children in the class group, the detection of early symptoms of diseases, the adjustment of work for those who may be temporarily in a weakened condition, and classroom conditions in general, such as temperature, ventilation, light, seating arrangement for those who have weaknesses of sight or hearing, and cleanliness. All of these are problems the responsibility for which must be assumed by the classroom teacher.

That the important place of the classroom teacher is being recognized by school workers is shown by the following excerpt from the report of the superintendent of schools of New York City.

The fundamental consideration underlying our health education program is expressed in the proposition that the *whole child* is the concern of the school. For generations the teacher, through training,

the aid of whatever other expert help can be obtained. This means that in attacking the problem of health education the aims committee must first agree upon an underlying principle of health education. The aims committee must determine also the aims of health education for the school system in general, for the various school level divisions, and these aims must be definitely related to and must contribute to the development of the general aim of education.

"We are attempting to build our health education curriculum on the philosophy that health is a way of living—mentally, emotionally, socially, and physically—and as such, cannot be taught, except to a very limited extent, as a special subject, but must grow out of and be a part of all child experiences in the school, the home, and the community." *Principles and Practices in Health Education* (New York, The American Child Health Association, 1931), pp. 33-34.

tradition and practice, has bent his energies in developing the mental life of the pupil. As a result of years of research, there is available for the teacher a body of knowledge that makes him thoroughly conversant with the growth of mental life and the means of advancing and measuring this growth. On the other hand, the school has left to the medical profession the study and care of the physical health of children. It is now conceded, even by the medical profession itself, that the teacher cannot and should not, without grave detriment to the child and society, neglect the study of the science and art that minister to the physical welfare of the child. In other words, society and its needs require that the whole child be the concern of the school.

The school is preparing itself to meet this new responsibility intelligently. It is seeking out the most effective ways of advancing the physical welfare of the child. It is seeking to know the child physically as effectively as it knows the child mentally. The school at present envisions its responsibility for the physical welfare of the child under the following three headings:

(a) The teacher must have a physical picture of the child supplied to her by the family or other physician. Of this picture the teacher must be constantly and familiarly aware.

(b) The teacher must give the child the knowledge, and train him in the habits, which will enable him to acquire and maintain good health. The progress of the child in physical fitness must be determined by a constant and careful follow-up.

(c) The teacher must supply the opportunity for the games and physical exercises required by nature for the development of the child's organism.²⁰

The important rôle of the classroom teacher in the program for health has been stressed repeatedly by authorities who have written in this field. The following excerpt illustrates the points emphasized by Wood and Lerrigo in a recent book.

I. One of the most important duties of a teacher as regards the program of health education is to maintain her own good health. To do this, she should, (a) follow a healthful daily regimen; (b) have a periodic health examination; (c) arrange for the correction of her remediable defects.

²⁰ *Thirty-Second Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, City of New York (1929)*, pp. 228-229.

The example of the teacher and supervisor in health education should supplement their teaching. However, equally to be esteemed with the example of robust vigorous health is that of the intelligent, consistent health conduct of many inspiring teachers and leaders of limited physical resources and endurance. These manifest a splendid spirit in a delicate frame, and should be estimated in qualitative and spiritual rather than a mere quantitative and physical value.

II. The teacher should feel, or cultivate in herself, a genuine spirit of devotion and enthusiasm for the health of others, especially of her pupils. She should, moreover, be interested in supporting community health activities, and should have the knowledge which enables her to do so intelligently. It is commonly observed that the success of a health education program depends to a large degree upon the spirit of the teacher. She should do all within her power to understand the need for health education, and to appreciate the benefits to be derived from it.

III. Every properly trained elementary school teacher should be qualified to teach health in a satisfactory and thoroughgoing fashion. Health education in the elementary school should be the task of the general classroom teacher, not of a special teacher. In high schools, teachers of some subjects more than others are responsible for the health education program, e.g., teachers of biological science, home economics, physical education, and the social sciences, have great natural opportunities to teach health.

Supervisors are necessary in the health education program both in elementary and high schools. Differences in training of teachers and of supervisors are indicated below.

Elementary school teachers should be prepared in the fundamental subject-matter derived from the following fields. This naturally does not mean a complete course in each subject, but merely indicates the field from which subject-matter should be selected.

- Nutrition
- Community hygiene
- Social hygiene
- Mental hygiene
- Health and care of infants and young children
- Health of childhood and adolescence
- First aid and safety
- Hygiene of the worker
- Home nursing and care of the sick
- School hygiene
- Physical education

General principles of health education and practice teaching, including practice in all types of contact with children, incident to health work in the schools.

The supervisor should be more thoroughly prepared than the general teacher and should include as much as possible of the following in his or her preparation:

(a) Broad, cultural, and general education, with graduation from a teacher-training institution, and when possible, with the addition of graduate study in an institution providing satisfactory professional training with advanced study in the field of health education.

(b) Experience in teaching health as a valuable background and preparation for supervision. If the special teacher or supervisor in this field is fortunate enough to have taught other subjects than health education under competent criticism, this supplementary teaching experience may prove of very great advantage.

(c) Thorough grounding in the fundamentals of:

- (1) General educational principles and methods;
- (2) Psychological and pedagogical principles and methods, and special adaptation to the field of health education;
- (3) Natural, biological and social sciences, with an extensive knowledge, if possible, of sanitation, public health, nutrition, and allied subjects;
- (4) Skill in observing, criticising, and guiding acceptably teachers under supervision; tact in successfully combining a minimum of adverse criticism with a maximum of constructive stimulation and help.

IV. The teacher should plan and carry out her actual program of health teaching in the most effective way of which she is capable. She should study the health needs of her pupils and the health problems of the community, and should plan the program to fit those needs. She should utilize the knowledge of subject-matter and principles of method implied in the preceding list of subject-matter to be included in the preparation of teachers. Mental and social health problems, as well as those of physical health, it should be noted, were included in this list.

V. The teacher should be qualified to perform certain of the tasks in the school health service program:

(a) To make daily health inspection to detect suspicious signs of illness in pupils, whose right to stay in the school may be questioned. As a result of such inspection every grade teacher even should be

able to deal with any situation affecting doubtful cases in the following manner:

- (1) To refer such pupils to the proper school health officer;
- (2) To isolate or exclude, or to send home, pupils who present signs that they should not remain in school that day. If the school is to be conducted as a health center, rather than a disease center, the teacher must be qualified to detect certain suspicious cases among the pupils, and unless some school administrative officer is present, the teacher should be authorized to exclude the doubtful pupil.
- (3) To become aware during school session of pupils who develop disturbing signs which need attention.

(b) The teacher in the school-room should be trained to make the preliminary health surveys of her pupils for the selection of those who need examinations by physicians.

(c) Every teacher should be trained in first aid and safety, to meet emergencies which may arise in any school.

VI. The teacher should have an understanding of the minimum essentials of the hygiene of instruction and management of schools, in order that the program of the school may be conducted in such a way as to protect and promote physical, mental and character health of the pupils, as well as of the teacher.

VII. The teacher should have knowledge of the essential facts in sanitation regarding air, water, ventilation, lighting, cleanliness, and other means of maintaining a healthful environment in the school and in the surroundings. Every school should be kept as clean and sanitary as the good housekeeper in the community keeps her home. This will provide a standard of practical housekeeping, which at least in appreciation and understanding should be demanded of every teacher.

VIII. Grade teachers in the elementary school, at least, and rural teachers, should be trained to teach a physical training program; to direct play; to give guidance and instruction in games in all the physical training activities in the school and on the playground where necessary. . . .

All classroom teachers, then, in the elementary, secondary and normal schools, for satisfactory service, according to opportunity and corresponding responsibility, should have a clear understanding of health; to be ready to support and coöperate with reference to the general or special health work of the school; be keen to observe

pupils intelligently in relation to health; and able to correlate and apply health teaching in any situation in the school.²¹

ORGANIZATION FOR HEALTH EDUCATION WITHIN THE LOCAL SCHOOL

Whatever plans have been made within a city for health education, the majority of the work connected with the program must be administered to children through the local school units. Although certain phases of health service, such as the work of visiting teachers, psychologists, nurses, physicians, and dentists, may be planned on a city-wide basis, the children are reached through the medium of the individual school. Consequently each local unit must develop an organization, administrative procedures, adequate records, and staff relationships so that an integrated health program may function effectively.

All too frequently in the past each of the three major divisions of the health program—health service, health teaching, and physical education—have functioned independently with little or no relationship or coöperation between them. Principals either have not been qualified or have not been in a position to coördinate the work. Hence, many excellent opportunities for health instruction have passed unused. As a rule the data obtained through medical and dental examinations are replete with materials which would provide excellent topics for health teaching. Such data should also contain important suggestions for the teachers of corrective gymnastics, playground, and physical education. The data gathered by the health-service department really furnish vital information which should permeate the entire health program within a school. The extent to which schools neglect to utilize to a maximum degree this significant body of information is a sad commentary upon organization and administration. Extensive record cards are filled out by the school physician, dentist,

²¹ T. D. Wood and Marion O. Lerrigo, *Health Behavior* (Public School Publishing Co., 1930), pp. 18-21.

and nurse, but there is no administrative machinery whereby the records may be made available to classroom teachers and teachers of physical education in order that their work may be shaped in terms of the needs of children. If the doctrine of recognizing individual differences is sound, it applies with all its importance to health education.²² If the topics in arithmetic are adjusted according to the difficulties of pupils as revealed by diagnostic tests, why should not health education be adjusted to the defects and weaknesses of children as revealed by medical and dental examinations?

The importance of the organization for health education within the local school can hardly be overstressed. Teachers need to be trained to detect and to recognize the needs, the situations, and the opportunities for health education as well as appropriate methods for utilizing opportune situations. Teachers must be taught to see the program for health education in its broader aspects. Administrative and supervisory techniques must be shaped so that all related health work may be coördinated and brought to bear upon the development of health for each individual child. Such a comprehensive program implies that the work of the school must extend to parents and certain community activities.

The program for health places no small burden upon the principal's ability to organize and administer. The principles which govern the supervision of the health program are no different from the principles which govern the supervision of other aspects of the work of the schools. Specialized techniques may be needed. Although a few suggestions may be obtained from the contents of Tables LXIV and LXV, an extensive discussion of appropriate techniques in this field cannot be entered upon at this time. The rest of this chapter will be devoted to descriptions of sample programs for the improvement of health education procedures. It is hoped that

²² C. D. Giaque, "The Adaptation of Physical Education to Individual Needs," *Education*, Vol. 53 (April, 1933), pp. 461-463.

they will be suggestive and will not be accepted as standards or ideals.

TABLE LXIV
HEALTH-HABIT QUESTIONNAIRE *

Item	Response
1. Do you sleep with bedroom windows open?.....
2. Do you sleep at least 10 hours every day?.....
3. Are you up at 7 o'clock in the morning?.....
4. Do you drink at least two glasses of milk every day?..
5. Do you eat a good breakfast every day?.....
6. Do you eat some fruit every day?.....
7. Do you eat some vegetables every day?.....
8. Do you drink plenty of water every day?.....
9. Do you drink coffee?.....
10. Do you drink tea?.....
11. Do you eat slowly and chew your food thoroughly?..
12. Do you have a regular time every day to go to the toilet?..
13. Do you take a bath all over at least once a week?.....
14. Do you have a toothbrush of your own and do you keep it clean?.....
15. Do you use it at least once a day?.....
16. Have you ever been to a dentist?.....
17. Do you have your teeth examined every year?.....
18. Do you often have a sore throat?.....
19. Do you have headaches often?.....
20. Do you ever have an earache?.....
21. Do your eyes hurt often?.....
22. Can you read writing on the blackboard easily?.....
23. Can you hear easily what the teacher says?.....
24. Do you often take cold?.....
25. Do you play a part of every day out doors?.....
26. Are you often absent from school on account of illness?..

* *The Work of the Public Schools* (Rochester, New York, 1928), p. 153.

TABLE LXV
SUGGESTIONS FOR A SCHOOL HEALTH SURVEY *

	Yes	No
I. Location and Grounds		
1. Is the location of the school healthful?		
2. Is the location safe—away from inflammable structures, railroads, street cars, highways, immoral places?		
3. Is it free from unnecessary noise, dust, and smoke?		
4. Is it accessible—"not over two miles from homes of children who walk or six from the homes of those who ride?" †		
a. If a school wagon or truck is used is it overloaded or crowded?		
b. If transportation is furnished, is it in hands of careful driver who is also a competent chaperone?		
5. Are the school grounds well drained?		
6. Is the soil uncontaminated, free from mixture of decomposing plant and animal matter?		
7. Is the soil fertile—"a pure, sandy or gravelly loam" † suitable for school gardens and playgrounds?		
8. Are the grounds sufficiently large to provide play and garden space? (Three acres is minimum for one-teacher rural school; consolidated school should have eight to ten acres; city schools should be placed near park, or have open air space on roof.)		
II. Construction and Repair of School Building		
1. Is the building fireproof?		
a. Were fire-proof materials used in construction?		
b. Are there adequate uncluttered exits or fire escapes in good repair?		
c. Do the doors open outward?		
d. Are the flues in good repair?		
2. Is the building adequate in size?		
3. Is the building well lighted—classrooms, cloak-rooms, auditoriums, halls, closets, offices, basements, and outdoor play spaces when used for night play?		
a. Is window space one-fourth to one-fifth floor area in all classrooms?		
b. Is unilateral lighting used in all classrooms?		
c. Are the walls of all classrooms of some light soft color—green, gray or tan preferably?		
d. Are shades light in color, translucent, adjustable and carefully and regularly adjusted?		

* Kathleen W. Wootton, *A Health Education Procedure*, p. 42-48.

† Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools.

TABLE LXV—*Continued*

	Yes	No
e. Are windows and globes for artificial lighting kept clean?		
f. Are seats and desks so arranged that neither pupils nor teachers face the light?		
4. Is good ventilation carefully planned for?		
a. Through open windows (breeze and lighting windows) in mild weather?		
b. Through window boards, jacketed stove or furnace inlets and exits for fresh air in severe weather. . . .		
c. By special ventilating system? (Note: open window ventilation preferable.)		
d. Is the room temperature kept at 68° Fahrenheit or below? (Less heat means fewer colds)		
e. Are windows opened before school, during recess and relief drills?		
5. Is the basement well ventilated, well lighted, and thoroughly dry?		
6. Are there two cloak-rooms or separate locker space for boys and girls of each class?		
7. Is there an entrance hall or porch?		
8. Is there a retiring room in the small plant that may be used for rest room, emergencies, physical examinations and library? In consolidated or city schools is there a well equipped library, teachers' rest room, office, adequate toilet and washing facilities, laboratory space? Is there a carefully planned medical inspection room or rooms of adequate dimensions and convenience in the latter?		
9. Is there available space for preparation and serving of hot school lunches?		
10. Have the old dust-catching transoms been eliminated from the school plan?		
11. Has the obsolete teacher's platform been removed from all classrooms?		
12. Is the building in good repair—roof, outside and inside walls, basement, windows, outside steps, inside stairs, floors?		
III. <i>Equipment</i>		
1. Has the school adequate sanitary toilets? At least two, one each for boys and girls built according to local or state health requirements?		

TABLE LXV—*Continued*

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- | | |
|-----|---|
| 2. | Is there a convenient and safe drinking water supply—water system, driven well? |
| a. | A cooler with generous supply of paper drinking cups, with waste receptacle to hold used cups, or |
| b. | Sanitary drinking fountains? |
| 3. | Are there available facilities for bathing hands? |
| a. | Are paper towels furnished by school? |
| b. | Is there a receptacle for used towels? |
| 4. | Are all classrooms equipped with single, adjustable seats and desks? |
| 5. | Is there necessary equipment for hot lunch? |
| a. | Stove |
| b. | Closed cupboard for utensils? |
| c. | Closed cupboard for supplies with vermin- and dust-proof containers? |
| d. | Cupboard for supplementary lunches from home? |
| 6. | Is the entrance furnished with foot scrape or wire foot mat? |
| 7. | Has the school standard scales, tape measures, individual weight charts and classroom weight records for monthly weighing and measuring of children? |
| 8. | Has the school a properly lighted Snellen Vision Test Card, a curtain rod for vertical posture test, a convenient loud-ticking watch for hearing test? |
| 9. | Has the playground adequate play equipment suitable for the interest of various groups—sand pile, slide, giant stride, low swings, teeter board for little folks; chinning bar, jumping pit, baseball, volley ball, basket ball grounds and tennis court, with necessary equipment, for the upper grades? |
| 10. | Is there an accurate thermometer for testing room temperature in each class-room? |
| 11. | Is there a well equipped medicine cabinet in the school? |
| 12. | Are there two or more standard health references, at least two supplementary health readers for each of the primary and intermediate grades, supplementary health texts and a large supply of free and inexpensive health bulletins for upper grades on shelves of school library? |
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TABLE LXV—Continued

	Yes	No
IV. Sanitation and Care		
1. Do toilets meet the sanitary requirements of state or local health departments?		
a. Water-carriage system for sewerage, toilets, located in basement with widely separated entrances and complete dividing wall between girls' and boys' toilets, or		
b. Two fly-proof, well lighted and ventilated toilets at least fifty feet in different directions from school house. Entrances carefully screened. Excreta decently and safely disposed of?		
c. Are toilets in good repair with indoor latch and toilet paper?		
d. Are they free from all defacing remarks?		
2. Is drinking water safe?		
a. Has recent analysis been made by state health department or local officer?		
b. Is water supply carefully protected at its source?		
c. Is there a clean cooler with adequate supply of paper drinking cups or a number of sanitary drinking fountains?		
3. Are the bathing facilities used for hands		
a. After going to toilet?		
b. Before eating?		
c. Any other time needed?		
d. Are clean individual cloth towels or paper towels used?		
(Note: Paper towels and paper drinking cups are cheap and should be a rule in all schools. One entertainment should pay for a year's supply.)		
4. Is the school house given at least three thorough cleanings during the school year—walls, floors, windows, desks, etc., each being carefully cleaned?		
5. Is the floor cleaned, disinfected, and waxed or cleaned and treated with a thin coat of floor oil?		
Formula: Linseed oil $\frac{1}{2}$ gallon		
Turpentine $\frac{1}{4}$ gallon		
Shellac 3 oz. per gallon of above.		
Note: The cheaper oil is a paraffin oil that may be bought from any gasoline filling station.		
6. Is janitor service up to standard requirements?		

TABLE LXV—*Continued*

	Yes	No
V. Use		
1. Is the hygiene of instruction considered?		
a. Is the school program especially arranged in relation to avoidance of fatigue and nervous and emotional strain?		
b. Is the school environment cheerful, encouraging, sympathetic?		
c. Are the study, recitation, play and rest periods carefully balanced?		
d. Are the subjects in the curriculum linked up with life interests of the children?		
2. Is there a definite recreational program?		
a. Are the recess periods used for supervised play?		
b. Are after school and holiday activities planned for the children?		
(1) Canning, pig, and corn clubs?		
(2) Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire or Girl Reserve organizations?		
c. Is adult recreation included in the program?		
3. Is the school house used as a community center for		
a. Parent-teacher association meetings?		
b. Movies, lectures, etc.?		
c. Health center?		
d. Is the school used for evening classes?		
4. Is your school adequately lighted for evening activities?		

SAMPLE PROGRAMS FOR IMPROVING HEALTH-EDUCATION PROCEDURE

Case 1. Administration of the health-education program. The administration of the health-education program is most satisfactorily accomplished by delegating responsibility to a health counselor who coördinates the health work of the various departments of the school. This plan is in operation in one junior high school, one senior high school, and four elementary schools, as follows:

A school health council with the principal as chairman, the health counselor as executive secretary, and representatives from the various departments as members, is a valuable instrument in carrying out the school health program. The main purposes of the council are: to create interest in school health work by securing the active coöperation of the faculty and students; to determine all available resources in the school that may contribute to a well developed health education program; to coördinate these resources so that they may be used in the most effective manner; and to act as a clearing house for all school community health problems. The health counselor's duties are:

1. To act as executive secretary for the health council of the school.
2. To represent the council in coöordinating the various aspects of the work of each department in the school that contributes to health.
3. To survey and bring before the council any problems having to do with the health of pupils or teachers.
4. To suggest to the council the various phases of a health program that will challenge the interest of both teachers and students, to propose health projects or campaigns, and to inform teachers of any new health programs or devices.
5. To prepare health publicity for the school and community through the school paper, daily press, posters, letters to parents, and printed circulars.
6. To acquaint incoming pupils, early in the semester, with the school health program.
7. To give health talks on personal, community, social, and mental hygiene to classes and to special groups when requested.
8. To coöperate with all departments of the school whenever special case studies are presented.
9. To work with underweight students.
 - a. Conduct bi-monthly weighings of all pupils 10 per cent or more underweight.
 - b. Determine progress.
 - c. Suggest a corrective program.
 - d. Hold conferences with students needing special attention.
 - e. Record data for reference and research.
10. After investigation, to refer pupils needing special attention to proper persons for remedial measures.
11. To coöperate with the school nurse in dealing with pupils who have returned to school after illness.

12. To coöperate with the health education teachers in formulating the daily health program of members of organized athletic teams.

The first step in the organization and administration of the health education program is the classification of children according to their individual health needs. Health activities should be adapted to age, sex, and individual differences in mental tendencies and in motor and organic capacities.

The health needs of individual pupils are determined by:

1. A medical inspection. This will measure the presence or absence of gross defects. The health record card, which contains the pupil's health history, may be consulted for this purpose.
2. Dr. F. R. Rogers' physical fitness or capacity tests. These tests determine the pupil's "Physical Fitness Index" (P. F. I.) which indicates objectively, though roughly, the pupil's endurance and general fitness, his physical activity habits, and his general athletic abilities, as compared with others of his age and weight.

These tests should be given before the pupil's academic programs have been determined, for if physical needs are to be met, pupils whose physical fitness is very low should be placed in special classes.

The high average group (P. F. I.—120 to 160 and above) consists of certain pupils whose physical accomplishments far surpass those of their classmates. Pupils in this group may be given special training for leadership, and function as class leaders in the gymnasium, swimming pool, or athletic programs.

There should be at least one special class for the group whose physical fitness index is below eighty-five. This will include most of those having serious functional defects, and the few whose special defects (as discovered by a complete medical examination) have not reduced their physical fitness indices below eighty-five may also be assigned to this group. This class may include seventh, eighth and ninth grade pupils. They may be given special attention from the health education teacher, meeting with him or her every day for corrective work on the recommendation and under the supervision of a physician.

After eliminating the physically gifted and the physically handicapped, the average group may be segregated according to grade levels. These may be divided according to the strength index into pairs of teams of equal ability. Because of differences in social expe-

rience the programs of these groups should be differentiated to meet the developing interests, as well as the physical status of each group.²³

Case 2. A county supervisory program. This program was carried out in the consolidated schools of Guilford County, North Carolina, and contains many suggestive items:

One of the outcomes of elementary education is the growth and improvement of the child's mental, emotional, social, and physical health behavior in terms of attitudes, habits, skills and knowledge. In order that the schools of Guilford County might achieve the above outcomes, those concerned with the education of the children have attacked the problem of curriculum building in health education. The underlying philosophy of health education in this system is that health is an integrated phase of general education, and as such must be the responsibility of every classroom teacher guided by the building principal and a general supervisor rather than by a specialist in one phase of health education. This curriculum is being built on certain basic principles which provide for:

- (1) An analysis by the home and school of situations so as to determine the health needs of children
- (2) The practice in natural situations of mental, emotional, social and physical phases of healthful living
- (3) Knowledge of information which will give health practices meaning
- (4) The development in both children and parents of an increasing appreciation and coöperation toward the scientific and professional services of the examining physician, the dentist, the nurse, and the welfare worker
- (5) An opportunity through well directed activities to aid children individually to make their own judgments and to form their own standards for healthful living, social relationships, and emotional control. Coöperation between the home and school.

Before telling the story of the development of the curriculum in health education a brief outline will be given of the organization of the school system. This system includes thirty consolidated schools, which employ 237 elementary teachers. These teachers average slightly over three years' college training. Twenty-two of these schools

²³ *The Work of the Public Schools* (Rochester, New York, 1928), pp. 180-183.

have seven or more teachers; fifteen maintain standard high schools. The health work in the high schools, however, was not included in this program. The county maintains a county health unit composed of a physician, two nurses and a sanitary inspector.

Since there is only one supervisor for all school subjects, it is necessary to perfect an organization whereby she can be of the most service to all principals and teachers in the system. Hence she serves as a professional adviser who encourages the principal to assume the direct responsibility for the instruction in his school. The supervisor works with both principals and teachers on problems of a professional nature, attempting to help them find and solve their own problems. This is done through, (1) directing and supervising professional study groups; (2) office and school conferences; (3) attending faculty meetings; (4) schoolroom visitations; and (5) work of various supervisory agencies of a secondary type.

Each year inventory is made of the educational needs and accomplishments of the various schools and the county as a whole. The most outstanding needs are then selected as subjects for study. Two years ago the problem of curriculum building in health was attacked.

During the first year the organization set up for pursuing this work consisted of separate meetings of principals, and of grammar grade and primary teachers, each of which met once monthly for study under the direction of the supervisor and a consultant in health education from the North Carolina State College for Women. In addition there were study and consultation groups within the individual schools.

In an initial step, teachers were guided in making an objective analysis of the natural situations within the school and the community which influenced the health of the child, thus embodying one of the basic principles. Analysis sheets were prepared for them which consisted of positive statements of practices based on practicability in relation to the public school; statements of practices which in the light of present-day knowledge were educationally sound and scientifically accurate, and based on the fundamental needs of childhood. Teachers analyzed their own practices by these positive statements.

NATURAL SITUATIONS AND HEALTH TEACHING

Every phase of the physical equipment was studied—light, ventilation, heat, water, toilets, etc. The natural situations which arise throughout the child's day in the school and through which health habits may be practiced, health knowledge impressed, desirable atti-

tudes built, and social health adjustments made, were analyzed. These natural situations included:

1. Transportation to and from school
2. Activities before and after school
3. Entering school for day's program
4. Beginning the school day—the home room period
5. The daily schedule
6. Morning playground period
7. Preparation for lunch
8. The lunch period
9. Afternoon recess
10. Drinking water during the day
11. Attending toilet during the day
12. Washing hands during the day
13. Rest periods for primary children
14. Auditorium activities
15. Classroom appearance
16. Control of communicable diseases
17. Dismissal of school
18. After-school activities at the school
19. Homework

Each of the above situations was analyzed. For example, the situation "entering school for the day's program" was found to consist of the following activities:

1. Entering building from the playgrounds
2. Assembling in classrooms
3. Attitude of teachers
4. Placing of coats, sweaters, hats, etc., in spaces provided for them
5. Removal of coats, sweaters, overshoes and hats
6. Adjusting room ventilation and heat
7. Observing that no child has wet feet or clothing on rainy days

A composite score showing the number of teachers observing the various positive statements was made for each school and for the county as a whole. With the information from this composite score each school and classroom was able to find its own needs and be in a better position to utilize all the factors and forces in the school and community in developing a healthful school day. Teachers were helped in the interpretation of their school analysis and given remedial and constructive assistance through the various supervising

agencies in the county. After six months of remedial work a study was made in order to determine the results. The data gathered from this study gave: The number of teachers observing particular school practices, 100 per cent; and that of the 344 practices included in the study, reports from the 198 teachers showed that the range of practices which had been improved by them was from one to 126. At the end of the seventh month, a second study was made in order to determine the teachers' needs in teaching materials. These data were assembled and used in the promotion of the work.

Many units of study have been worked out in the classrooms in which health subject-matter has been taught. In some instances health instruction was correlated. The phase of curriculum construction under discussion may aptly be illustrated by a short but specific example.

A LUNCHROOM STUDY

When school opened, the principal of a particular school asked the teachers in the primary grades to help the children select their food at the cafeteria in order that they might have a well balanced lunch. Here was suggested to a second grade teacher a study of foods for growing boys and girls. (This, of course, was on a second grade level.) Since these children were too young to read the cafeteria menu quickly and make a wise selection of food from the variety which was served in the cafeteria, the classroom teacher discussed with the children each day the cafeteria menu and the price of the food. From the lists each child selected his lunch and wrote it on a piece of paper. The children gave this to the cafeteria manager, who filled the order. The teacher soon found that when her pupils were in the cafeteria, it was not necessary for her to help them in the proper selection of their food. Through the development of this study, the following important health facts had been learned:

1. Proper daily amount of milk
2. Proper food for breakfast, lunch, and dinner
3. Kinds of healthful vegetables
4. Importance of clean food
5. Importance of well balanced meals.

* Another basic principle of the health curriculum is the coöperation of home and school in establishing the school child's health habits. Thinking teachers and parents have long seen the want of understanding manifested by requiring children to keep good health habits in school, while at home these same important habits are allowed to be overlooked. As we all know, the foundation of person-

nality types is laid in childhood. Every waking hour the school child is reacting mentally, emotionally, socially, and physically to the situations that arise in his home, in the school and on the playground. Habits, good or bad, are being formed. These habits tend to become fixed, and if they are bad they are the roads to inefficiency and unhappiness in adult life.

Throughout each and every day the child's conduct should be that of healthful living. The part of a school child's day spent at home should be marked by wholesome living and all of his habits should conform as nearly as possible with the practices which the schools in the country are giving the children an opportunity to live, and which are being lived each day during school hours. If children are required to eat with clean hands in school, the same practice should hold true at home. Only when health habits are practiced uniformly at all times during the day, and every day, can we expect children to develop a wholesome type of living.

Every spring before the close of school, free clinics are sponsored by the school, the parent-teacher association, and the county health department. To these gatherings, held in the school houses, the mother may bring her pre-school child for examination and medical care. Here her questions regarding the child's health, improvement of defects shown on his health card, and other questions about health, are answered by one in whom she may have confidence. She learns new and improved methods of healthful living and is helped to face the great problem of keeping her child healthy, and to prepare him for school the following fall by giving him the best physical equipment possible.

THE SCHOOL CHILD'S DAY IN HIS HOME

In three school centers, the parent-teacher association has made a study of the school child's day in his home. These data point out opportunities for healthful practices, desirable in the home situations of each school child, and outline the child's day in general, and in the following fourteen situations:

1. Getting up
2. Preparation for breakfast
3. Breakfast
4. Preparation for school lunch
5. Preparation for school
6. Starting to school
7. Arrival at home after school
8. Chores

9. Play
10. Preparation for supper
11. Supper
12. After supper and recreation
13. Getting ready for bed
14. In bed.

Adequate directions for answering questions accompany the study. Under each situation are questions which draw the parents' attention to the important part which the home can play in helping the school develop the child's proper attitude toward the subject of health. They give a set of standards which parents may use as a guide for the most desirable health conduct of the school child in his home. Also, they serve as a check list by which parents may determine the health practices as they are actually carried out in the home.

A specific example might be the tenth of these, a situation, "Preparation for supper." Health practices—mental, emotional, social and physical are as follows:

Our children are called from play in ample time to get ready.

Our children put away caps, coats, and playthings before washing faces and hands and combing hair for supper.

Our children get ready for and come to supper quietly.

A composite was made of data gained from this study and was, during the past year, used as a basis of study in these three centers. At one, the parent-teacher association, during its regular meeting, had general discussions of specific situations for study. From the data collected there was evolved a method of procedure in developing parent-education courses in the schools. It is hoped that next year parent-study courses will be carried on in all school centers throughout the county.

This health curriculum can never be definitely established. With the passing of years it must be ever living, growing, even as our civilization or the children who are to carry on civilization must change the needs of our county and its people. New situations demand new methods. This is the very essence of growth, which after all is the main aim of any education.²⁴

Case 3. Principles underlying the program for the improvement of health education as carried out in Springfield,

²⁴ *Principles and Practices in Health Education* (The American Child Health Association, 1931), pp. 36-41.

Missouri. The plan was described as follows by Miss Alice Pittman, General Supervisor of Education:

I have been asked to suggest for you a few principles which might apply to the place of supervision in the successful functioning of the health curriculum. But I cannot see why the principles which would apply to supervision as related to the successful functioning of the health curriculum are any different from those which would apply to any phase of supervision for any curriculum. It may be because I am interested in general education.

My gestures in the direction of health education will be in the nature of selecting a few illustrations from the practices of those who have been directing supervision in relation to the functioning of a health curriculum to free teachers by enabling them to think in terms of broad principles. I would like to restate that presently by adding a little more to it. Personally one of the big problems in supervision that I have constantly felt has arisen from the fact that teachers want very specific help. Yet if we are to keep faith with them we must not only give them definite procedures but help them to think in terms of broad principles. We can reconcile those two facts I think. Supervision must deal with specific procedures, for if the purpose of supervision is to improve instruction, instruction is improved as specific practices are improved. We make changes in specific practices. For that reason we must deal with them.

Second, general abstract principles, whether in health or other education, are arrived at and comprehended only through concrete applications. So, as I see it, there is no way of helping teachers to become conscious of broad principles except through helping them to see concrete applications. I would like to state the principle in this form:

That supervision must deal with specific procedures in a way that will lead to an understanding of broad principles. I think we can deal with specific procedures in a way that will not lead to an understanding of broad principles. I would like to give you one illustration from a specific procedure of those who were in charge of our health supervision last year in Springfield.

A health analysis for elementary schools was worked out in this way, and an analysis was made of the child's school day from the point of view of health by first locating big situations in the day. For instance: Coming to school in the morning; entering the school building; the morning home room period, etc.

Under those, specific health practices were listed which were possible, and which should be found in those situations. For example,

under the big situation "entering the school building," this particular practice was listed:

"The child enters the school building in a leisurely, informal, natural way." That is a specific health practice.

This analysis was worked through for the whole day. It was presented to teachers and used really in two different ways throughout the school year. First the teachers checked their own customary practices with the idea of locating problems on which they needed to work. At a later time the teachers were asked to take one situation, the regular classroom procedure, and check it through every day for a week in order to give a different picture of their own practices with regard to that particular situation.

Now you see that in that supervisory activity, the supervisors were dealing with very specific, concrete practices of teachers. It seems to me that it would have been very easy for that activity to have resulted only in the teacher's realizing, "Here are several hundred things that I am expected to do," and nothing more.

Some of the statements were in terms of things the children do, some of them in terms of the things teachers do.

The purpose in the mind of supervisors in using that analysis was, of course, to change practices. It was also basically an activity by which a supervisor hoped to lead teachers to an understanding of some of the basic principles of health education, for example, that health was a way of living and not a school subject. She had certain principles in mind by which she hoped to lead teachers to have an understanding of and feeling for the use of those specific practices.

This analysis was presented to the teachers in small groups within a building, not in city-wide meetings. I happened to be present at one or two of those meetings and it was very evident that in the supervisor's mind was a very clear-cut notion of what she expected to have come out of the use of this analysis, and that this thing was not merely a change in practice, but an understanding of principles, because every question that was asked for teachers, every point that was brought up, was related to this big principle that health is a way of living and not a school subject.

It seems to me that there is an illustration of using an emphasis on a specific practice in such a way as to lead teachers to an understanding of principles.

Now the second big principle that I should like to suggest is this: That it is a function of supervision to emphasize the child as a whole rather than special skills or subject-matter.

We are saying that the teacher must look at the child as a whole, but in a great many school systems where special supervisors—

"experts"—are employed, we are not asking teachers to look at the child as a whole. But those teachers are working under a supervisor of music, for example, who is thinking in terms of music, a supervisor of art who is thinking in terms of art, supervisors who are not thinking of the child as a whole.

That problem, by the way, has been pointed out as some of you may know very definitely in the last *Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors as one of the outstanding problems of supervision. Just how we are going to get around that I do not know. It is a thing we are getting ready for in Springfield. It has not gone far enough so that I can say it is going to accomplish this purpose, which is to have our whole supervisory program look to the child as a whole.²⁵

Case 4. The following health program at the Parker Elementary School, Chicago, was begun five years ago as an experiment in health education.²⁶

Five years ago the Parker Practice School was one of three elementary schools to undertake a coöperative experiment in health education with the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund. The work at the other schools (the Kenwood and the Chalmers) commenced in the fall of 1924. The work commenced in February, 1925, at the Parker. The program at Parker had for its aim the setting-up of a health ideal, the promotion of health habits among the children, the teaching of a certain amount of health information, and finally the organization of a course of study in health education.

Growth and increase in weight are signs of health in children, and so weighing and measuring can always be connected with health habit formation. The Fund furnished workers who came to the school and weighed and measured all the children from kindergarten through the sixth grade once a month. Comparisons were made with standard height-weight-age tables. During the first two years the children were all classified into three groups: (1) those of normal weight for their height and age, (2) those less than normal but not so much as 7 per cent below normal, and (3) those 7 per cent or more below normal. Individual, room, and school graphs were made, and the children

²⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 392-394.

²⁶ There was health teaching in the school previous to the set-up of this experiment, some of it most excellent. Elementary science and nature study were taught the first and last ten-week terms of the year and health was taught the second and third ten-week terms. There was nothing, however, that could be termed a school program. There was no course of study.

were thus stimulated to bring about an improvement in their eating, sleeping, resting, and their play habits in order that they might improve their weight records and that of their groups. There was also an opportunity for comparisons with the weight graphs of a control school in the neighborhood where the children came from the same type of homes but where there presumably was no organized health instruction and where the weighing and measuring was done by the Fund workers only three times a year. This school was dropped as a control at the end of the second year because its interest in the health problem became so keen that it no longer could be considered a control.

After the second year the room and school graphs were discontinued and each pupil was given a card which showed a graph of his individual gains or losses for the year. This system has enabled us to stress gains and pay less attention to comparison with so-called standard weights. It has proved so satisfactory that it is being continued throughout the school. The room teachers themselves do the monthly weighing now.

The Fund also furnished a pediatrician and a health worker who came to the school twice a week for three and one-half years. They examined all the children of the third grade and such others as either the teachers or principal requested. The mother was always present during the examination and a rather complete health history of the child and his habits was thus obtained. Where the habits or program were poor the physician and health worker made recommendations directly to the mother and so sought for improvement. If there were organic or other serious defects she was advised to take the child to the family physician or a specialist as the Fund physician did no prescribing. Each child had a follow-up examination the next semester or the next year in order that there might be a check-up on the amount of improvement or lack of it. Our files show there were 1,043 examinations. Two hundred seventy-nine children had been examined once, 133 children had been examined twice, 107 children had been examined three times, and forty-four children had been examined four times. Altogether there were 563 different children examined.

The Fund has on file the complete record of these examinations. The Fund workers very kindly made such duplicate records of the findings as would be intelligible to the lay workers together with their recommendations. These were filed in the school office in order that the principal and teachers might study them and so cooperate in bringing about the desired improvement.

Teachers were encouraged to be present during the examination

of some of their children. The principal also was present at quite a few of them. It was an experience most worth-while from the standpoint of insight into, and understanding of, the health handicaps under which school children labor. The number of remediable defects found in supposedly normal children from good comfortable homes and with apparently intelligent parents, is nothing short of appalling; such defects as: carious or dirty teeth, infected or diseased tonsils, defective ears and eyes, nervous instability, bad posture, poor nutrition, constipation, and enuresis. The follow-up examinations showed that in the majority of cases parents are quite ready to cooperate. Second and third examinations in the main showed improvements in the habits the home controlled, longer sleeping periods, better balanced meals, more vegetables, fruit and milk, and fewer laxatives. They showed many of the defects, such as carious teeth and defective eyes, corrected. Our experience would seem to point to the advisability of periodic examinations by their family physicians for all children in order that slight and remediable defects may be corrected before they become serious.

The school has had very fine cooperation in its health program from its parent-teacher association. The association has furnished milk which is served just before the morning recess period to the children who need it and whose parents cannot furnish it. It has paid for eye-glasses and for tonsil and adenoid operations. Its monthly programs have correlated well with what the school has been doing.

Beginning in 1926 it has conducted a house-to-house canvass every spring to ascertain how many children would be entering either the kindergarten or first grade the following September. With the help of the health department it has been instrumental in the establishment of a clinic in the neighborhood and has asked the parents to bring these children to the clinic for examination in June. During the summer the school nurse has visited these homes, in some instances several times, and has persuaded those who have not already done so to have the remediable defects corrected. Another examination is always held in September. Our records show splendid cooperation, in fact in practically all cases perfect cooperation. The school nurse reports that her records show 93 per cent of the defects corrected the first year, 97 per cent the second year, 100 per cent the third year, and 98 per cent the fourth year.

But the greatest task from the standpoint of the school is the actual work with the children in the classroom, the checking on certain habits and the fostering or encouraging of other habits through direct instruction, reports to the home, etc. In every case the school attempts to give as much information as the children are capable

of assimilating, it tries to make health a desirable, joyous adventure that all should seek and, having found, would hold. This means making health instruction a regular subject in our school curriculum, giving it a definite place in the daily program and teaching it directly and through all possible correlations with other subjects.

After two years of trial of methods and materials of health instruction the teachers met in grade groups in the spring of 1927 to formulate a course of study in health. Each grade group in turn submitted its program to a central committee made up of grade chairmen and a representative from the Fund. This central committee criticized the material and aimed to harmonize the programs for the different grades. The completed course was accepted by the superintendent and was sent out to the schools for further trial. In February, 1929, it was adopted by the Board of Education as a tentative course for the city schools. In the fall of 1929 the course was revised in the light of suggestions and criticisms received during the two years of its try-out in the city schools. The revised course has now been printed in the accepted loose-leaf form adopted by the Board of Education and is being sent out by the Department of Curriculum.²⁷

Case 5. Health Program at the Marquette School, Chicago.

It has always seemed singular that while everyone interested in the education of our youth has appreciated how necessary good health and health habits are to all, so little has been done in a systematic way to see that the conditions in our schools are right to develop the correct health habits, to locate physical defects in children, and to see that these are corrected as far as possible.

We have undernourished children; children with diseased tonsils and adenoids; with defective hearing, eyesight, teeth, etc. These children are attempting to secure an education under such terrible handicaps.

At Marquette we realized the necessity of someone in the school devoting her whole time to the development of correct health habits and to following up children with physical defects in the hope that the general health of pupils in the school might be placed on as high a basis as possible.

To make pupils desirous of attaining correct living habits and of acquiring good health, this work has been associated with play activities, and the work so interestingly taught and so varied that it will

²⁷ *Health Education, Fifth Yearbook of the Chicago Principals' Club* (1930), pp. 13-16.

not become monotonous. No one method of teaching is adhered to, and the textbook is made supplementary. There has been persistent effort to make the content and methods suit the particular needs and interests of the children according to their grades. The work has developed gradually until it may be grouped under the following headings:

I. *Weighing*. The entire school is weighed two or three times a year. Children who are below the average in weight are weighed monthly. Cards, printed in the school, showing weight are sent home to the parents. A white card signifies average weight, a blue card, 7 per cent or more under average weight, a red card, 10 per cent or more under the average weight, a yellow card, 20 per cent under the average.

Low weight is indicative of low vitality and there is consequent inability to do school work; low weight makes the child an easy prey to disease. Therefore, one of the fundamentals of our health program is to develop the correct habits which aid in bringing the child's weight up to normal.

II. *Food*. A detailed study of food from the standpoint of kinds and amount, as well as a study of calories and the number of calories needed daily by children, is made. Cereals, vegetables, fruit and milk are stressed in their relation to a proper diet. As a climax to this project, we have a cafeteria game. On a table mounted on wooden blocks are colored food models with the number of calories shown on each model. Trays are provided. Children then go forward and select on their trays the food that they had for breakfast, lunch, or dinner on this day. They name each food to the class, the number of calories they had for breakfast, and list them as to tissue, muscle, health and growth builders, or body regulators.

Model meals are then chosen for each meal, and the kind and amount is again discussed. This fixes the information previously learned unusually well in the mind of the child. The child enjoys this cafeteria and considers it play, but at the same time is learning a lesson which will stay with him, and his family as well, forever.

III. *Cleanliness*. There is an inspection of children daily for cleanliness, and the results are reported to the health teacher once a week. Children are urged to bring combs, towel, and soap to keep in their lockers. Washing before meals to avoid germs is stressed. This is done in part by means of poems, etc. Brushing teeth is made much of, and a reward for daily care is inspired by gold stars. Extra stars are given for dental visits. Tooth-brush drills and games are made use of to make this work effective.

IV. *Sleep and Rest*. The habits of proper rest and sleep are

especially stressed with children as they are considered of most importance. Sleep charts are used with a letter to parents urging coöperation. Experiments to show fatigue like the following are used: A piece of meat was torn apart to show the muscles. A motivated lesson on muscles was taught this way. Then pupils exercised their muscles to the point of fatigue, a rest followed, and the value of rest was shown. Many such lessons using the different parts of the animal as related to the human can be used.

V. *Clothing*. The use of proper clothing is taught by means of stories and posters. While working on booklets or posters, children talk about wearing rubbers in rainy weather, etc.

VI. *Posture*. Posture is taught by exercises, stories, songs, and plays. Silhouette pictures by means of a shadowgraph provide an interesting means of teaching good posture. One specific point of posture at a time is stressed. Instead of saying just "stand erect," it is better to say "abdomen in" while standing, or "lower back touching seat" while sitting. Some such specific thing for pupils to think about improves posture more quickly than generalities.

VII. *Outdoor Play*. A great deal of outside play is given during school time in the fall and spring months, and supervised by the health teacher. We believe in outdoor play for the following reasons:

1. It keeps health lessons from getting monotonous through the joy and anticipation of going outside to play. Pupils learn the value of sunshine and exercise.
2. It teaches children many new supervised games.
3. It develops leadership. Children are taught to choose captains, play congenially together independent of suggestions by the teacher except where a difficulty arises.
4. It teaches good sportsmanship.
5. It stresses health habits through the medium of games.
6. It permits of exercises in the open air.

The results of outdoor play are shown in better organized play and the coöperation of children on the playground at recesses, and at times when the teacher cannot be present. The idea of the entire school is to strengthen self-control and encourage independence.

VIII. *Safety*. Safety is taught through use of posters, poems, and plays. Pupils are urged to join radio safety clubs. Follow-up work is then easy as children listen faithfully to their club each night over the radio. Furthermore, each child is provided with the button of his club.

IX. *Health Habits*. Health habits are taught in Grades 1 to 4 through songs, poems, stories, booklets, charts, posters, experiments,

plays, contests, inspection, moving pictures, stereopticon, radio, outdoor play; in Grades 5 to 8 through illustrated papers on health habits written and illustrated with magazine cut-outs to avoid the dryness of a plain theme, plays and stories—mostly original—posters, experiments, and booklets.

PROJECTS AND EXPERIMENTS USED

1. Eye tests, using the Snellen Eye Chart, are given to the entire school. Many corrections and diseases of the eyes were checked and remedied as a direct result. Pupils wearing glasses are checked by each teacher to see that they wear them daily.

2. Teeth are examined and children urged to visit the dentist. An honor roll is used, which shows the names of children whose mouths show no cavities due to dental care.

3. Health-habit contests provided free by such organizations as the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, the Cream of Wheat Co., the Colgate Co., etc., are used periodically throughout the school.

4. A Finger-Biting Club (not made compulsory) to assist in the curing of that habit.

5. Nutrition classes with especially planned programs for children persistently under the normal weight.

6. Posters and charts hung in the halls of the school to remind children silently at all times that good health is important.

7. Form letters sent to parents to enlist their coöperation are absolutely essential in this work.

8. Many good plays and helps can be secured from the Illinois State Health Department.

At the present time, we are conducting an experiment on rats to prove the effects of milk versus coffee. We secured two baby white rats of the same age. Each received an exact measured portion of food. To the smaller one's diet we added milk. To the larger one's diet we added creamy coffee. They were then weighed three times a week and a careful graph made to show their gain. Before they had been fed on this diet a week, the smaller rat (the milk drinker) had passed the larger rat (the coffee drinker) in weight.

The experiment is now in its fourth month with the milk drinker far ahead. Last month cod liver oil was added to the coffee drinker's diet, and he immediately began to gain. The result of the whole experiment has proved to be very much worth-while. The graph was studied by the children daily and not only have many ceased drinking coffee, but coffee versus milk has been the subject of constant discussion with many questions asked and answered that otherwise would never have arisen.

From the foregoing one can see that an extensive, intensive, and interesting course in health training is given in the Marquette School. The results attained must produce healthier boys and girls who will live more complete lives as men and women and who will be able, to a fuller extent than otherwise, to learn and work throughout their lives.²⁸

THE PRINCIPAL'S PART IN THE PROGRAM FOR HEALTH

Attention has been called previously to the lack of coördination between the various aspects of the program for health. It is not uncommon to find elementary schools in which health instruction is given according to systematically outlined courses of study the contents of which are quite unrelated to the immediate health needs of the children. Likewise physical education activities do not take into account the existing physical characteristics and needs of children. These conditions exist in spite of the fact that the health-service department collects and has available extensive data regarding the health conditions and health habits of children. It would seem, therefore, that the foremost responsibility of the principal with reference to the program for health is to coördinate the work of the various departments or units within the school which have to do with health. Administrative procedures must be instituted which will make it convenient and possible at all times for the classroom teacher, the physical-education teacher, the school nurse and physician, the mental hygienist, the visiting teacher, and others who deal with the physical, mental, or social health of children to coöperate and to coördinate their efforts. A review of the illustrative programs given above will reveal many instances in which the principal played an important rôle in bringing about the coördination of the personnel involved.

It is generally recognized that the principal is responsible for initiating and developing in local school units systematic programs of one kind or another. Whether a particular project

²⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 19-22.

is worked out in only a given school or whether it is an integral part of a city-wide program, the responsibility for its development rests largely with the principal. If a systematic, coördinated course of instruction in health and safety education is to find expression in the school, the principal must be in a position to lead the way and to help teachers in effecting the proposed plans. Suggestive outlines, courses of study, methods of procedure, and specific objectives for various age groups are available and may be utilized.²⁹

To make the classroom instruction in health effective, it is essential that the teachers be furnished with an abundance of health materials. Invariably the principal can be of great assistance in familiarizing teachers with materials and in securing for them not only the materials which can be obtained through regular requisition from the central office but also the wealth of materials usable for health teaching issued by the various public, social, and commercial agencies. Much of this material in the form of posters, folders, and pamphlets is free or inexpensive.³⁰ Health articles from newspapers and magazines are frequently very helpful in stimulating the interest of children in good health. Health clubs and inter-class projects and contests, individual health charts, posters prepared by pupils, and individual progress records are used to advantage in some schools.

A fourth responsibility of the principal with reference to the health program has to do with the making of periodic health surveys. Some health-survey techniques have been suggested in the above paragraphs and others may be found in professional literature. Such surveys render great service in familiarizing pupils and teachers with the actual status of health practices and in providing excellent bases for an

²⁹ See particularly T. D. Wood and Marion O. Lerrigo, *Health Behavior* (Public School Publishing Co., 1930).

³⁰ For an excellent summary of free or inexpensive health material, see P. R. Pierce, "Evaluation of Free and Inexpensive Health Materials" in the *Fifth Yearbook of the Chicago Principals' Club* (1930), pp. 197-224.

immediate program for improvement of the health program in the school.

Prevention and control of contagious diseases is often considered the major function of the school physician. The principal, however, must assume the responsibility for identifying cases of suspected contagion and for securing their examination by the school physician. To accomplish this a thorough system of daily inspection of pupils by teachers is essential. Teachers must be assisted in their efforts and trained in techniques for detecting the chief signs of illness in children. Suspected cases must be handled with dispatch. The principal will need to devise forms for use in sending children to the school physician or nurse for inspection, for excusing children from school attendance, and for checking their return to classes after exclusion.

Previously in this chapter attention was called to the fact that health education is the sum of experiences in school and elsewhere which favorably influence individual, community, and racial health. Obviously the curriculum in health for the child extends far beyond the confines of the school. The conditions of the neighborhood, various types of community recreation centers, and the conditions and practices in the home have significant relationships to the development of health habits and knowledges on the part of the child and determine in part the effectiveness of the school program. To secure the sympathetic support of the public for the health program the school is sponsoring, and to secure the necessary coöperation of parents and the various community agencies, it is essential that the principal take a leading part in making the program for child health, not merely a school project, but a community project. To this end the principal must establish cordial relations with community organizations and agencies and with parents through mother's clubs or the parent-teacher association. The importance of these community contacts cannot be overstressed since they determine in no small measure the effectiveness of the school health program.

Of no less importance than his other responsibilities regarding the program for health is the principal's duty to so organize his office that the effective administration of the health program is possible. Procedures must be outlined for excusing pupils from school for minor ills when the school physician and nurse are absent, for administering first aid when accidents occur, and for the admission of pupils who have been absent on account of illness or quarantine. Record forms must be provided and kept up-to-date. Procedures should also be established whereby the school physician and nurse may go about their duties with a minimum of interruption of class work and at the same time permit the maximum of health service for the pupils. Of equal importance is the development of procedures whereby the data gathered by the health-service department are made readily available to those giving health instruction and to those in charge of physical education activities.

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CHAPTER XII

SCHOOL PROVISIONS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

As progress in the science of education has enabled the profession to know more about children and to study more carefully the relation of the training of youth to the ideals of a democratic society, the more perplexing have become the problems of providing the most desirable kind of education for each of the millions of children who attend the public schools annually. The large majority of children have traits and abilities which are similar enough in kind and extent so that from an educational point of view their needs can be supplied reasonably well through the usual type of class instruction. There are some children, however, who possess some traits sufficiently in plus or in minus quantities so that they cannot satisfactorily be taught with the typical class group. These children are commonly considered as "exceptional." They deviate from the normal or average children to such an extent that special educational facilities have been provided. Among the group of exceptional children are the feeble-minded, the gifted, the psychoneurotic, the speech defectives, the delinquent, the blind, the deaf, the physically handicapped, and others. Some of these children have deficiencies which require only temporary adjustment whereas others need special method throughout their school training.

The administrative methods which school systems have introduced to provide more adequately for the variations in the abilities and needs of children are legion. They may be roughly classified into three categories, namely, those which vary the rate at which children progress through school, those which differentiate on a qualitative basis the content of the

curriculum, and those which provide a kind of education quite different from that usually given the large majority of pupils. There are many combinations of two or more of the above groups and it is frequently very difficult to classify a given practice in one of the three categories without noting some features which overlap one or both of the other groups. Perhaps the best known illustration of the first class is the quarterly-promotion scheme introduced by W. T. Harris in St. Louis about 1862. Differentiated curricula illustrate the second group while special classes for blind or crippled children are characteristic of the third.

Among the administrative devices, which have been used to adjust the school to the child or to adjust the child to the school are opportunity rooms and coaching classes; ungraded or remedial rooms for overage and retarded children; parental schools; special classes for the mentally handicapped, the mentally superior, the visual defectives, the speech defectives, the physically handicapped, the hard-of-hearing, and the non-English-speaking; differentiated curricula and individualized instructional materials; ability grouping, grade skipping (acceleration), speed classes, repetition of grades, and so on. A complete inventory of practices in public schools would perhaps extend the list considerably. All of them, however, represent administrative devices which have been inaugurated to assist the school in administering the program of public education to the varying types of children who attend the schools. In a sense they are manifestations of the extent to which the doctrine for the recognition of individual differences has been accepted in school practice.

Nearly all of the above devices, as well as others that might be listed, imply that there are groups of exceptional children for whom some special arrangements, either temporary or permanent, are desirable. The implication is that there are types of pupils for whom the standard school procedure as it has developed in America is inadequate. One might say that such devices as ability grouping and providing for individual

needs within regular class groups (even if the latter are sections within an ability-grouping scheme) are special arrangements, but even then one finds certain groups of pupils who cannot be cared for successfully under the usual class grading and instruction. Many school systems have therefore found it desirable to extend their classification policies so that these exceptional groups could be withdrawn and placed in an educational environment more suited to their peculiar needs. These exceptional groups have been segregated into what are commonly called "special classes." There are, of course, those extreme deviates who are, or should be, institutional cases and are usually provided for in state institutions.

THE DEMOCRATIC IDEA AND THE EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

The proposal to differentiate American education, which is usually implied in the establishment of special classes, has not been without ardent supporters as well as bitter opponents. The notion that a democratic society offers equal opportunities to all has been frequently misinterpreted by the educated as well as by the untutored to mean that all shall have the same opportunity regardless of ability or application. Townsend points out that, although the misunderstandings may be many, there are two common ones which deserve careful study.¹ The first one is the popular distortion of the idea of democracy and the second is concerned with the methods proposed for putting the new plans into effect. The fact that many people look upon the graded school as an indispensable instrument of democracy and an agency which gives each child an equal chance with all the others arouses serious objections against the segregation of certain groups of pupils into special classes. Although Townsend was writing

¹ H. G. Townsend, "The Democratic Idea and the Education of Gifted Children," in the *Twenty-Third Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Public School Publishing Co., 1924), Ch. viii, p. 145.

from the view point of the education of gifted children, an excerpt from his article seems apropos here.

A large part of the emotional reaction, however, is due to a confusion between a democratic education and the graded school. The story of this confusion is a long one and is mostly the story of the particular type of school organization which has grown up in America. We have come almost to identify democracy with uniformity because of the accident of school organization. Spiritually, as indicated above, the two ideas are so far from being identical that uniformity has really much more in common with the monarchial form of government than it has with the democratic. The protest of the philosophical democracy was a protest against a social order in which a man was just a member of a class and no more—just one among many—a mere thing.

From this angle the graded school has probably done more to weaken the true effect of democracy than any other American institution. If it were carried out to its logical conclusion, it would overthrow democracy completely. The first postulate of the graded school is that of homogeneity or identity. I mean that such a postulate would be fatal to democracy were it not that it is maintained for but a short period in the day or the life of an individual. Beyond the reach of its heavy hand the child seeks and finds scope for the development of his particular individuality. The home, the church, the street, and a thousand other influences coax from him his loyalties and his talents until he develops his own life and adds it to the total which brings variety, value, and humanity into an otherwise barren existence. The weakness of the graded school is its strength. Theoretically, it is an abstraction from life, but practically it never achieves complete abstraction because it is unable to secure homogeneity.²

With reference to the establishment of special classes for the severally handicapped, the objections were less serious, due, perhaps, in part to the emotional sentimentalities and sympathies which are commonly extended to the handicapped in a Christian era,³ in part to the progenitors of corrective pedagogy, and in part to the purely selfish motives which operate to interest society in the education of these children.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 151–152.

³ J. E. Wallin, *Problems of Subnormality* (World Book Co., 1921), Ch. i.

Horn points out that "complete lack of education almost always means lack of ability in the matter of self-support. In our society persons completely incapable of self-support are supported at the cost of the rest of the group. In so far as the type of education particularly adapted to the kind of deviation makes the recipient of this education self-supporting in whole or in part, in so far as the community is relieved from that burden. Ultimately, it is probably cheaper to furnish education than to maintain asylums."⁴

Segregation into special classes of the more fortunate deviates is a much more recent venture in public-school procedure and has been met with vigorous opposition and criticism as well as with equally vigorous support. Those who believe that no effort should be spared to provide for gifted children such forms of special training as will enable them to develop to the maximum the abilities which they have remind us that the progress of civilization has been due largely to the achievements of individuals and that each idea or increment for progress has been originated in an individual intellect.⁵ Civilization rises from the selective thinking of a few persons. The welfare of humanity has been improved, not by the mediocre thinking of members from the large bulk of average or less than average persons, but by the intellectually superior work of the more able members of society. Consequently, since the great social good results from the labors of those whose abilities rise above those of the average person, the school owes a definite responsibility to society to educate and train those who have been endowed with superior intellects so that they may render maximum service.

Those who oppose or question the desirability of providing special education for superior and gifted pupils point out that we have no assurance that these children will use their abili-

⁴ J. L. Horn, *The Education of Exceptional Children* (The Century Co., 1924), pp. 7-8.

⁵ Leta S. Hollingworth, *Gifted Children* (The Macmillan Co., 1926), p. 339.

ties to develop the welfare of society. Society is already suffering from the fact that the abler ones are enjoying comforts and advantages not available to their less fortunate brethren, and largely at the expense of the latter. If the school enhances through special training the effectiveness of these already superior individuals it will be guilty of extending the advantages of one group at the expense of the others. McClusky has raised the above question in the following terms:

What is the objective of the special education of the gifted child? Presumably to increase the welfare of society. But can we be sure of accomplishing it? Let us admit that society desperately needs a cure for cancer and dementia praecox and that some gifted child grown to maturity will discover those cures and hence become a benefactor of society. But we must also admit that some gifted child may some day invent some poisonous gas, or electric ray, or some means for the wholesale transmission of disease germs which placed in the hands of some other gifted child at the head of some government might conceivably mean the end of civilization. Napoleon was a gifted child and Europe hasn't recovered yet from his infantile swagger—and Napoleon received special education. Gifted children allowed us to drift into the Great War; and gifted children may be allowing us to drift into another war. In other words, the granting of special privilege to gifted children is no guarantee that such opportunity will be used for the welfare of society. In fact, the writer hazards a guess that the majority of gifted children have spent most of their time exploiting their less talented brothers, and that the bright people who have done otherwise—e.g., the Justice Holmeses, the Jane Addamses, the Ghandis, and the Julius Rosenwalds—have been in the decided minority. Of course some will argue that more attention to gifted children will reduce the numbers of those who exploit and increase the tribe of those who serve; but we cannot be sure of it by establishing opportunity rooms or graduating Ph.D.'s at the age of twenty-two. To make a mistake with a person of mediocre talent is serious, though his influence is limited; but to make a mistake with a person of genius may wreck the progress of years.⁶

Perhaps the objections to special forms of education for gifted children are not so much objections, but rather cautions

⁶ H. Y. McClusky, "The Education of the Gifted Child," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, Vol. 3 (February, 1932), pp. 71-72.

designed to cause more careful examination and evaluation of the procedures to be followed in their education before we launch headlong into the business. Since the movement for special educational opportunities for superior pupils is in its infancy, it is to be expected that there will be many unsolved problems which will require extensive and careful research. There is little reason to believe that the problems associated with the education of the upper 2 to 5 per cent of the population will not lend themselves to painstaking research as the problems pertaining to the education of the lower 5 per cent of the population have done, and that ultimately there will be available a body of scientific information regarding the former similar to that now found for the latter. In the process of experimentation with gifted pupils procedures will be found whereby proper direction can be given so that the superior abilities will be directed into socially useful channels. It is also likely that the resulting techniques will be at least as effective in promoting the social weal as the conventional methods for handling superior pupils in schools have been. After all, to provide training suited to the needs and abilities of gifted children simply means the extension of the doctrine which calls for the recognition of individual differences so that it will apply to bright children as well as the slow ones. If the doctrine is sound for the lower 90 or 95 per cent of pupils, it should be equally applicable to the upper 5 per cent. If it does not apply to the latter group, the idea that democratic education implies equal opportunity for everyone according to his ability, breaks down.

In spite of the arguments which may have been set forth against the desirability of segregating into special classes certain groups of atypical children, the movement for special class education has gone forward rapidly (Table LXVI). From meager beginnings during the last decade of the nineteenth century, the number of public-school systems which have provided for exceptional children through establishment of special classes of various kinds has increased rapidly. At

the present time certain types of special classes are found in only a few cities, but the policy of segregation may be said to be quite generally accepted. The program is not as extensive in some communities as it is in others.

TABLE LXVI

GROWTH OF SPECIAL SCHOOLS AND CLASSES FOR CERTAIN TYPES OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN IN CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

YEAR	FOR MENTALLY DEFICIENT		FOR DEAF OR HARD-OF-HEARING		FOR GIFTED	
	Number of Cities *	Number of Pupils	Number of Cities *	Number of Pupils	Number of Cities *	Number of Pupils
1900 ..	†	41	749
1910.	52‡	53	1,508
1916 ...	118	16,524	71	2,362
1922	133	23,252	74	2,911	†
1927....	218	51,814	83	3,515	†
1930..	315	55,154	105	3,901	30	3,883

* Size of city not always reported, but usually applies to cities with a population of 10,000 and more.

† No data, rather than no classes.

‡ Data for 1913.

THE SCHOOL LAW AND SPECIAL CLASSES

Care for society's unfortunate deviates began in private institutions supported by philanthropy. There gradually developed, however, an attitude of state responsibility for the education and care of those who seemed apparently unqualified to participate successfully in the life of society. It was perhaps only natural that attention should be directed first to the most obvious cases, namely, the totally blind and the deaf-mutes on one hand, and the low-grade idiots on the other.⁷ For the benefit of such extreme deviates and for the protection of society, state institutions for the blind, the deaf,

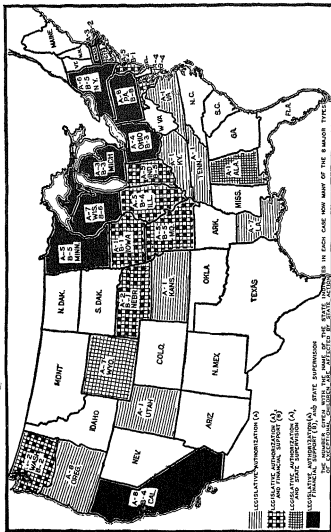
⁷ Alice Descoedres, *The Education of Mentally Defective Children* (D. C. Heath and Co., 1928), p. 15.

the feeble-minded, and the social and moral delinquents were established.

The attitude regarding society's obligation to the handicapped has been gradually changing from that of "finding a convenient method whereby the burden upon society could be relieved" to that of looking upon the handicapped as cases which require special training so they may become self-supporting citizens. The excellent educational work undertaken in some of the private and state residential schools demonstrated the unquestioned desirability of applying appropriate training and education. The successful work of these institutions focused attention upon the presence of similar children in the public schools and the special problems which they created in the administration of public education. Surveys of the pedagogical status of children in the public schools revealed in a striking manner the existence in the schools of many children, not institutional cases, yet deviating sufficiently so that they were apparently obtaining little benefit from the usual school procedure. The similarities between institutional cases and many of those found in public schools suggested the benefits which the latter might derive if administrative arrangements would permit their segregation and appropriate treatment. The fact that state institutions were already overcrowded and that they could take only the worst cases at any rate made it seem imperative that public schools provide for those who were "somewhat handicapped" through the establishment of special classes.

The school law in all states did not empower school boards to make provisions for atypical children. This situation, plus the fact that the public schools were being recognized as the appropriate political unit through which the exceptional children in need of special treatment could be reached, has led state legislatures to place upon the statutes laws relating to the administration of special instruction in public schools.⁸

⁸ Special instruction, as here used, refers to special classes as well as instruction provided for youth in hospitals and homes.



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From rather simple beginnings just prior to 1900, state interest in the establishment of special classes has grown rapidly. Of the one hundred legislative enactments, reported by Kunzig, authorizing the establishment of special classes in public schools for respective types of exceptional children, the first one dates back to 1896, but almost 50 per cent have taken place since 1920.⁹ Up to January 1931 such legislation had been enacted in twenty-six states (Table LXVII and Fig. 23).

TABLE LXVII

NUMBER OF STATES GIVING LEGISLATIVE AUTHORIZATION AND SPECIAL FINANCIAL AID TO SPECIAL EDUCATION IN LOCAL PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS, JANUARY, 1931 *

TYPE OF PUPIL	NUMBER OF STATES	
	Legislative Authorization	Special Financial Aid
Blind or partially-seeing.....	19	12
Deaf or hard-of-hearing	19	14
Crippled	16	12
Mentally defective.....	16	6
Anemic, tuberculous, cardiac.....	12	4
Speech defective.....	11	5
Behavior problems	10	3
Mentally gifted.....	4	2
Total number of states providing for one or more types.....	26	16

* From E. H. Martens, *Education of Exceptional Children*, U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 20, p. 9.

The character of the school laws relating to special-class education differs materially from state to state. In certain

⁹ R. Kunzig, *Public-School Education of Atypical Children*, U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1931, No. 10.

states, such as Pennsylvania,¹⁰ California,¹¹ and Illinois,¹² it was recognized that the proper education of atypical children might require encouragement or, in fact, compulsion, so laws were passed which provided state aid to local schools if certain types of special classes were organized. In some instances school systems in cities of a specified size or in certain types of districts¹³ are compelled to establish special classes for some types of handicapped pupils, if a given number of such defective children are to be found within the district. In other states again, the local districts are free to decide whether special education is to be provided.¹⁴ The laws pertaining to any particular type of special class differ from state to state. To illustrate these differences the principal features of the laws relating to the education of crippled children are shown in Table LXVIII.

The tardy development of interest in special education for gifted children is again indicated by the fact that only four states have extended their special legislation to include such pupils. Only two of these states provide financial aid to local districts for special classes for gifted children.

Space cannot be provided here to discuss the merits and weaknesses of the laws which are in operation in the several states. The recency of the interest in special classes and the absence of clearly defined policies regarding the state's relationship to this new field of work in public schools are no doubt largely responsible for the variations in the laws of the several states. It is generally agreed by students of educational administration that it is the function of the state to encourage, to stimulate, to guide the development of educa-

¹⁰ *School Laws of Pennsylvania* (1929), Art. 14, Sec. 1415.

¹¹ *School Code of California* (1929), Ch. vi, Art. 3, Secs. 3442 and 3443.

¹² *The School Law of Illinois*, Circ. No. 225, p. 142.

¹³ *Education Law*, University of the State of New York Bulletin (1929), Art. 20-b, Sec. 578.

¹⁴ *General School Laws*, State of Michigan (1927), Ch. xix, Sec. 1.

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TABLE LXVIII
PRINCIPAL FEATURES OF LAWS RELATING TO THE EDUCATION OF CRIPPLED CHILDREN ^a

STATE †	State Regulation of Education of Crippled Children	Teachers of Special Classes Must Be Approved by State for That Purpose	State Aid Required	State Aid Authorized	LOCAL SCHOOL BOARD							
					Aid Required	Aid Authorized	Required to Provide Special Classes	Authorized to Provide Special Classes	Required to Provide Home Instruction	Authorized to Provide Home Instruction	Required to Provide Transportation	Authorized to Provide Transportation
Alabama †.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
California.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Connecticut.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Illinois.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Indiana †.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Kentucky.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Louisiana †.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Maryland †.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Massachusetts.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Michigan.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Minnesota.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Missouri.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
New Jersey.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
New York.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Ohio.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Oregon.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Pennsylvania.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Tennessee.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Washington †.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Wisconsin †.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Wyoming †.....	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Total.....	17	9	14	6	11	11	7	10	6	2	4	7

^a W. W. Koesecker, *Digest of Legislation for Education of Crippled Children*, U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1929, No. 5, p. 2.

† In the District of Columbia, the board of education has ruled that "Any pupil with serious mental or physical defects, may . . . be segregated in special classes after appropriate examination of said pupil." *By-laws and Rules of the Board of Education of the District of Columbia*, p. 48.

‡ "Crippled" children not expressly mentioned in the law.

§ City school boards

|| Boards of education in cities of the first class.

¶ To institution where treatment and education are to be given.

tional practice, and to give assistance and general supervision in the new ventures that express intelligent progress in local communities. No doubt the state should assume a share in the financial responsibility of educating exceptional children in residential state schools. In the past the relative needs of the various types of handicapped children have received little consideration.¹⁵ In fact it is not quite clear from existing laws just what the function of state aid is. It may be conceded that *all* types of exceptional children are entitled to a share of consideration in the reimbursement which the state makes, and that comparative costs of educating the respective groups should be an essential consideration in apportioning funds. The greatest development of education for exceptional children can be expected only if the state shares in the extra expense. This is particularly true for small or isolated sections and rural areas.¹⁶

THE EXTENT OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL SPECIAL CLASSES

The special class movement began at the opening of the present century (Table LXIX). Although leadership in this field was assumed by the larger cities, the establishment of special classes has not been confined to the largest cities only. Those types of special classes (chiefly for the mentally handicapped) for which it was easier to muster together a sufficient number of eligible pupils to warrant the expense, have been inaugurated in cities having populations of 10,000 or less, sometimes even in communities having populations as small as 2,500. A recent comprehensive survey in which returns were obtained from 96.6 per cent of the 762 cities with populations of 10,000 and more (1920 census) showed that special classes of one kind or another had been founded in 75.5 per cent of

¹⁵ *White-House Conference 1930, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, Addresses and Abstracts of Committee Reports (The Century Co., 1931), p. 241.*

¹⁶ *E. H. Martens, Education of Exceptional Children, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1931, No. 20, p. 11.*

TABLE LXIX

PIONEER PUBLIC-SCHOOL CLASSES FOR VARIOUS TYPES OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Type of Exceptional Pupils	Pioneer Cities in the Establishment of Special Schools or Classes
Mentally handicapped.....	Providence, 1896; Springfield (Mass.), 1897; Chicago, 1898; Boston, 1899; New York, 1900; Philadelphia, 1901; Los Angeles, 1902.
Deaf or hard-of-hearing.....	Boston, 1869.
Blind or partially-seeing.....	Chicago, 1900.
Crippled or physically handicapped	Chicago, 1899; New York, 1906; Cleveland, 1910; Philadelphia and Baltimore, 1913.
Anemic, tubercular.....	Providence and Boston, 1908; Chicago and Rochester (N. Y.), 1909; New York and Hartford, 1910.
Delinquent, unstable.....	New York, 1874; Cleveland, 1879.
Gifted.....	Louisville (Ky.), 1918 *

* Experimental class organized explicitly for gifted children. Various enrichment plans and promotion schemes had been in use for more than forty years.

the cities surveyed.¹⁷ While only one type of special class was found in some cities, other municipalities had established as many as twelve and fifteen different kinds of classes. A review of Table LXX will reveal the frequency of the prevailing types of special classes existing in public schools at the present time. The reader will observe that schools and classes for the subnormal are by far the most common. Special classes for gifted pupils, first organized in Louisville, Kentucky in 1918, have now been established in thirty cities. This does not imply that gifted children are totally neglected in other cities, for enrichment and acceleration plans have been in vogue in many places for several decades.¹⁸

¹⁷ A. O. Heck, *Special Schools and Classes in Cities of 10,000 Population and More in the United States*, U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1930, No. 7, p. 3.

¹⁸ *Classroom Problems in the Education of Gifted Children*, *Nineteenth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Public School Publishing Co., 1920).

TABLE LXX

THE EXTENT OF SPECIAL SCHOOLS AND CLASSES IN CITIES HAVING POPULATIONS OF 10,000 AND MORE IN 1930 *

TYPES OF SPECIAL SCHOOLS AND CLASSES	NUMBER OF CITIES REPORT- ING	SPECIAL SCHOOLS		SPECIAL CLASSES		TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS
		NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF PUPILS	NUMBER OF CLASSES	NUMBER OF PUPILS	
Parental schools for truants and delinquents.....	33	33	2,443	30	1,135	3,578
Schools and classes for truants and delinquents.....	46	26	3,512	88	1,950	5,462
Schools and classes for the subnormal.....	355	146	13,494	2,343	41,660	55,154
Industrial schools and classes (elementary).....	43	20	2,656	643	13,255	15,911
Schools and classes for overage children.....	42	25	4,958	256	6,354	11,312
Schools and classes for non-English-speaking children....	107	53	10,466	666	12,251	22,717
Schools and classes for gifted children.....	30	7	631	112	3,252	3,883
Open-air schools and classes.....	134	66	14,905	646	16,281	31,186
Schools and classes for children with speech defects.....	76	32	3,108	2,144	49,004	52,112
Schools and classes for crippled children.....	88	33	4,365	273	5,673	10,038
Classes for epileptic children.....	5			2	20	20
Sight conservation classes.....	96					
Classes for the deaf.....	83			350		

* Summarised from A. O. Heck, *Special Schools and Classes in Cities of 10,000 Population and More in the United States, op. cit.*

THE ADEQUACY OF SPECIAL PROVISIONS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

If current practice may be taken as an index, it seems to have been generally conceded that the establishment of special schools and classes for exceptional children has been accepted in American educational policy as a legitimate method for extending the recognition of individual differences. Consequently, if the practice is sound and its extension should be advocated, one may well inquire regarding the extent to which all the pupils in need of each specialized type of training are being served. The recent rapid development of special schools and classes and the fact that at least one type of special class is found in 75 per cent of the cities with populations of 10,000 and more might suggest that exceptional children are adequately provided for at present. Perhaps the best answer to the question of the adequacy of present service as compared to need can be obtained from the *Report of the Committee on Special Classes* of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.¹⁰ This Committee on Special Classes estimated on the basis of the extensive data at their command that there were in the United States in 1930, 14,400 blind children under twenty years of age, 6,000 of whom are being educated in state, private, or public day schools and classes. There were also 50,000 partially seeing children who should be in sight-saving classes, but less than 5,000 of whom are actually enrolled in such classes. A better comprehension of the extent of the problem with reference to the education of this type of deviate may be gained from Figure 24. The discrepancy between need and present service will become more apparent when it is known that there are twenty-seven states in which no sight-saving classes have been established, and that in cities having populations of 100,000 and more, only

¹⁰ *Special Education: The Handicapped and the Gifted*, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection (The Century Co., 1931).

about 37 per cent of eligible pupils are actually enrolled in sight-saving classes while in cities with populations of less than 30,000 the proportion of eligible pupils actually enrolled drops to one-half of 1 per cent.

Analyses of the Committee, similar to the above, indicated the existence in the United States of 3,000,000 children with

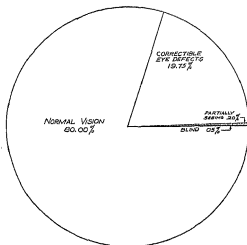


FIG. 24. TOTAL SCHOOL ENROLLMENT IN THE UNITED STATES CLASSIFIED BY VISUAL CAPACITY.

From *Report of Committee on Special Classes*, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, p. 127.

hearing impaired in various degrees; 18,212 deaf children enrolled in schools and classes for the deaf. There are 1,000,000 school children between the ages of five and eighteen who are so defective in speech that they require remedial treatment and training and only 60,000 of these are receiving the necessary corrective training at the present time. It was estimated that 2 per cent of school children are deaf or

hard-of-hearing and that 4 per cent are speech defectives.

The magnitude of the educational problems presented by the physically handicapped is suggested by the fact that there are 300,000 crippled children, 100,000 of whom need special education. About 10,000 of the latter are enrolled in public schools and an additional 1,480 in state and private hospitals and schools. There are 382,000 children who are tuberculous, 850,000 more who are suspicious cases; approxi-

mately 1,000,000 school children who have weak or damaged hearts, 375,000 of these have serious organic heart disease. There are also about 6,000,000 children of school age who are malnourished, out of which number less than 40,000 are enrolled in open-window and open-air schools. It was estimated that the malnourished, cardiac, tuberculous, etc., constitute approximately 20 per cent of the school population.

There are about 450,000 pupils who are mentally retarded to such a degree that they require special education to make the most of their possibilities. Less than 60,000 of these are enrolled in special classes. Researches have not been consistent in showing what percentage of the school population is classed as sufficiently defective mentally to require special class training. It may be assumed, however, that 2 per cent of the school population is a fair index.

A discussion of school provisions for children who excel noticeably in intelligence is fraught with danger because terminology is less well defined and less uniform than for other groups of exceptional children, although considerable confusion of terms still exists in the designation of the latter groups. If Hollingworth's definition of gifted children is accepted, candidates for this type of special class would come from the most intelligent 1 per cent of the juvenile population.²⁰ Out of the 25,000,000 school children in the United States, 250,000 would be termed "gifted" and would all have I. Q.'s of 130 or over. In school practice it has proved inconvenient in many instances to adhere to such a rigid definition, largely because of the difficulty of obtaining sufficient numbers living within a reasonable distance from school centers in which special classes could be organized for them. It has not been uncommon, therefore, for public schools to extend this category to include all pupils designated as "very superior," that is, to include all children with I. Q.'s of 120 and over. If this definition is accepted, special classes for children with exceptional intelligence will include about 6 per cent of the

²⁰ Leta S. Hollingworth, *op. cit.*, p. 43.

school population, or approximately 1,500,000 children. In 1930 approximately 4,000 pupils were enrolled in special schools and classes for gifted children. Many cities, of course, attempted to provide for the gifted as well as for those of less than normal intelligence through ability grouping, differentiated curricula, promotion plans and so on.

PROBLEMS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

The fact that more than 11 per cent of the school population deviate so much from the normal that they require special class facilities, clearly indicates the importance of the special-class problem as a fundamental phase of school administration.²¹ If the total number of exceptional children in any one city or school district had the same or similar educational needs, the problem of adequate provision would be much simpler. As it is, the number of deviates in any one school system may consist of ten or more distinct types, each type requiring totally different treatment and facilities. It thus becomes exceedingly difficult for small communities and rural areas even to approximate adequate provisions for exceptional children. Since public schools are assuming increasingly larger responsibilities for the training of exceptional youth, adequate provision for all types of deviates can hardly be expected unless several small contiguous city or rural districts coöperate in the maintenance of the several types of special classes. In many instances it may be desirable to designate the county as the unit for the administration of special classes. The movement for the consolidation of rural districts should be a distinct aid in extending to rural children the advantages which are believed to accrue from special-class training.

²¹ G. L. Hilleboe, *Finding and Teaching Atypical Children*, Contributions to Education, No. 423 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930), p. 33.

The distinct lack of agreement as to the kinds or degrees of handicaps which warrant segregation into special classes is evident regardless of what type of exceptional children may be chosen. Similar disagreement may be noted as to methods of selection. Until terminology has been more clearly defined and generally accepted, many children who should receive special training will be overlooked. The corollary that perhaps at present many are found in special classes who should not be there does not hold true with equal force because of the limited provisions made at the present time. Usually the most obvious and extreme cases are included.

Confusion in the field of special education is not confined to terminology, although much of it may be due to the lack of commonly accepted terms. There is no very great clarity of purpose or objective in the education of exceptional children, especially the mentally retarded.²² In some communities, once a child is assigned to a special class for mentally defectives, regardless of the degree of subnormality, it is assumed that he will never be able to show normal achievement (at least in academic work) and he is given a curriculum which contains a large amount of basketry, weaving, and other manual tasks designed to prepare him for simple occupations. Invariably these simple occupations are not available to him when he graduates to become a self-supporting citizen in a highly industrialized social order. The pupils of only small degrees of subnormality have thus been given a very poor kind of preparation for the types of positions in society which are available to them and which they might occupy.

In some communities the purpose of special classes for the mentally subnormal has been to bolster up their achievement so they might be restored to the regular classes. Frequently, where the latter purpose has prevailed, there has not been a clear-cut distinction as to the types of pupils to be assigned

²²Florence Beaman, *An Experimental Curriculum for Special Classes*, unpublished Master's thesis, Northwestern University Library, 1932.

to the class. Average pupils of normal intelligence have been assigned to the same classes as students of subnormal intelligence. The desirability of this practice may be questioned. It would seem that the average pupil of normal intelligence manifests a type of maladjustment and demands a type of treatment quite different from that of the mentally subnormal child.

Types of experimental work which are being carried on in a number of places raise some rather fundamental issues regarding certain points of view and policies which have prevailed with reference to the education of the mentally defective. In Minneapolis, for example, several classes have been organized, each enrolling thirty-five pupils who would ordinarily be assigned to special classes for mentally subnormal children.²³ The standard curriculum, as found in the regular public-school classes of the city, is used for these special groups. Expert instructors, utilizing highly motivating teaching procedures, have succeeded consistently for more than three years in securing achievements in these special groups equal to that obtained in the regular classes of normal children.²⁴ Placement and follow-up work with graduates of these special groups has been found to be one of the most important aspects of the work. Tentative results suggest that the type of training given in these special classes is of greater direct value to the students in the various vocations which they go into than is the modified curriculum usually found in special classes.

In Minnesota, as perhaps in certain other states, the whole problem of special-class education is being approached with a distinctly critical and experimental point of view. This experimental attack is being fostered by the Minnesota State

²³ The Minnesota law specifies that the maximum number of pupils per teacher shall not exceed fifteen if state aid is to be granted. See, *Standards: Special Classes for Defectives*, State of Minnesota, Department of Education (St. Paul, 1931), p. 9.

²⁴ Unpublished data secured through the courtesy of Dr. J. S. Rockwell, College of Education, University of Minnesota.

Department of Education in coöperation with the University of Minnesota, which provides the training for special-class teachers. In the administration of state aid the director of special classes from the State Department of Education liberalizes certain phases of the standards to permit numerous local adaptations. Also, local communities are encouraged to carry on various types of experimentation in the classes for mentally subnormal children. For example, one school system has instituted a modification of the Winnetka plan, and it appears to work successfully. One school system which has three classes for the mentally subnormal has made certain individual social adaptations which show marked departure from traditional practice. Another city has organized its uppermost group of the mentally subnormal children as an integral part of the junior high school where the "home room" idea prevails with all its implications. Still another city, which has four classes of the mentally subnormal, prides itself upon the number of children sent from these classes into the regular junior-high-school program.²⁵ These examples are illustrative of the tendency in some states and cities and suggest the many modifications and experimental approaches which are being made and show the many phases of special education which remain to-day as unsolved problems.

Another most pressing issue is the need for scientifically determined curricula and methods of instruction.²⁶ In the absence of definite purposes and comprehensive follow-up studies of the careers of special-class graduates it has been difficult to evaluate the training given in special classes. The content of curricula and hence the type of education given in

²⁵ Unpublished data secured through the courtesy of Dr. Kenneth Nilson, Director of Special Classes, Minnesota State Department of Education.

²⁶ Lulu M. Stedman, *Education of Gifted Children* (World Book Co., 1924).

H. J. Kramer, *Present Practices in Training Provided for Gifted Children*, unpublished Master's thesis, Northwestern University, School of Education Library, 1932, Ch. iv.

special classes differs widely, especially for the mentally defective and the mentally superior. Special-class education cannot be given proper direction and proper evaluation until aims and curricula have been subjected to more extensive research. The whole problem is still further complicated by the fact that some pupils have several types of defects. It is not uncommon to find mentally defective children among the blind, the deaf, or the crippled.²⁷

The question of obtaining adequate financial support for special classes is a vital issue for most school administrators. The cost of special-class instruction (Table LXXI) is usually

TABLE LXXI
ANNUAL COST PER PUPIL OF SPECIAL-CLASS EDUCATION *

TYPES OF CLASS	COST (IN DOLLARS)	
	Average	Range
Blind.....	†	120-590
Sight-saving.....	200-250	132-331
Deaf.....	264	204-517
Speech correction.....	10	†
Open-air.....	169	100-305

* From *Special Education, the Handicapped and the Gifted*, Report of the Committee on Special Classes, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, pp. 5-6.

† Data unavailable.

much more than the cost per pupil in regular elementary-school classes. The fact that the membership of special classes is usually small (a factor frequently controlled by law), has been an important item in creating high annual costs per

²⁷ P. A. Witty and Muriel B. Smith, "The Mental Status of 1,480 Crippled Children," *Educational Trends*, Vol. 1 (January, 1932), pp. 21-24.

Kenneth Nilson, "Certain Intelligence Aspects of a Group of Physically Disabled Pupils in Minnesota Public Schools," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 26 (March, 1933), pp. 513-516.

pupil, and incidentally retarding the extensive development of special classes (Table LXXII). Although the higher cost

TABLE LXXII

THE AVERAGE SIZE OF VARIOUS SPECIAL CLASSES *

Type of Class	Size of Class		Size of Class
Mentally retarded	18	Deaf	10
Backward and border line . .	21	Hard-of-hearing	100†
Defective speech	100†	Crippled	18
Blind	10	Open-air	25
Partially-seeing	18		

* From *Special Education, the Handicapped and the Gifted*, Report of the Committee on Special Classes, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, p. 554.

† The assumption is that a special teacher will take care of one hundred pupils.

may be justified, it is likely that research must find methods for instructing larger groups or some other means for reducing costs before it can be expected that all pupils in need of special-class training will be provided for.

Changes in educational procedure which require teachers of special knowledge and preparation are usually slow in being brought about because persons with the requisite training and experience are not available. It is only as a practice becomes more common that training institutions offer the specialized curricula. The special-class movement has not been an exception to this general statement. In fact, one of the pressing needs at present is for a greater number of adequately trained teachers. No doubt the contributions of special-class education in the past have been conditioned by the fact that much of the instruction has been given by inadequately trained teachers. The experience in Cleveland is perhaps typical of what many school systems have had to do. To obtain the type and quality of instruction which seemed essential in order that the Major Work Classes (special classes for pupils with I. Q.'s

of 120 and over) might achieve their purpose, the Cleveland staff found it necessary to recruit from the regular teaching corps those teachers who seemed to have the essential qualities which, if properly directed and developed, would enable them to do the kind of teaching desired in the Major Work Classes. The teachers selected in this manner were given such training and supervised practice teaching as the administrative and supervisory staff thought necessary and possible to give.

Another vital issue, at least from a practical point of view, pertains to articulation and promotion from the elementary to the junior high school and from thence to the senior high school. In the past, secondary institutions have made little provision for exceptional children graduating from the elementary school, whether these children while in the elementary school have been members of special classes or of regular classes. Perhaps, because of various factors, secondary schools have not been called upon to make extensive provisions for exceptional children. In the future, however, with the development of the special-class movement and with the increasing length of the total period of schooling for the majority of children, the secondary school will be confronted with increasing numbers of special-class graduates from the elementary school. The secondary school will no longer be permitted to assume that all those deviates who cannot respond successfully to the high-school curriculum and methods as commonly organized at the present time will conclude their formal education when they graduate from the special classes of the elementary school. Even for intellectually superior children the experience in many cities has shown that pupils trained in special classes with an enriched curriculum have found great difficulty in adjusting to the more formalized procedures of the high school. One of the important factors causing maladjustment for these pupils is the attitude and reactions of the high-school teachers. Just how the high schools will meet the issue raised for secondary education by elementary-school

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special-class graduates (not only the intellectually slow and the intellectually superior, but other types of deviates also), is uncertain at the present time. It may be that more schools will follow the example set by some. A few high schools have organized a special curriculum for those of low ability who have been sent on to the high school, either as graduates of special classes for mentally defectives or as overage non-achievers in regular classes.²⁸ In Cleveland the Major Work Classes have been extended into both the junior and the senior high schools (Table LXXIII). The enriched curriculum to

TABLE LXXIII

MAJOR WORK CLASSES (FOR VERY SUPERIOR PUPILS) IN CLEVELAND, 1920-1932 *

	1920	1932
Elementary School		
Number of schools.....	1	12
Number of classes.....	1	19
Number of pupils.....	26	650
Grades included.....	4-6	1-6
Junior High School		
Number of schools.....	1	5
Number of classes.....	1	18
Number of pupils.....	25	625
Grades included.....	7B	7B-9A

ONE CLASS ORGANIZED IN ONE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN 1930. IN 1932 THIS SAME HIGH SCHOOL HAD SIX CLASSES, ENROLLING 144 PUPILS.

* Courtesy of Dorothy E. Norris, Supervisor of Major Work Classes, Cleveland, Ohio.

²⁸ The New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Ill., and the Proviso Township High School at Maywood, Ill., have developed such programs.

which members of these classes were exposed during the elementary-school period is continued on the secondary level.

In view of the magnitude of the task of providing adequately for the numbers of pupils in need of special education and the many unsolved problems, the Committee on Special Classes of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection outlined the following program for the organization, administration, and supervision of this phase of public education.

SERVICES OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

1. That Congress enact legislation providing for a limited amount of federal aid to be apportioned to the states for the purpose of stimulating the development of adequate educational facilities to meet the needs of handicapped children. Such aid shall be made available to the states for the salaries of teachers, supervision, research and teacher training. A limited appropriation by the federal government for this work would undoubtedly result in every state undertaking the organization of special-class services at a much earlier date than would be the case if the work was dependent entirely upon state and local support. The White House Conference committees have indicated very clearly both the magnitude and the seriousness of the problem. The welfare of so many young people is at stake that the federal government should give its whole-hearted support in promoting the services necessary to meet their needs.

2. That Congress appropriate to the Office of Education a total sum which it may use for research, surveys, special studies, advisory services to the states and local communities, and general promotional work for handicapped children. Such an appropriation should be made available for the employment of both temporary and permanent personnel to assist in formulating educational programs to meet the needs of the various groups of handicapped children. Furthermore, a more extensive program of research is necessary if the work for these children is to be developed on a sound educational basis. The Office of Education should have a staff of highly qualified experts to assist the states and local communities in the organization of the work.

3. That the Office of Education appoint a national advisory council for handicapped children composed of representatives of national organizations interested in the welfare and education of the handicapped, to advise in the formulation and assist in the sponsoring of a comprehensive educational program for all the handicapped chil-

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dren of this country. At the present time there is little coöperation between the many organizations interested in this problem, with the result that the educational needs of certain groups of handicapped children are greatly emphasized while those of other groups are almost entirely neglected. A national advisory council could perform a great constructive service by bringing about a better understanding of the educational needs of all handicapped children and securing an endorsement of the program on the part of the national and affiliated state organizations. No organization would have to forego its present work. There is so much to be done for these children that each national and state organization could undertake more responsibilities, in addition to giving its support to the larger program planned to help all handicapped children.

4. That the Bureau of the Census secure for each ten-year period, at the time of the federal census, the name, address, age and nature of disability of each physically handicapped minor from birth to twenty-one years of age. The classification would include the blind, the deaf, the crippled and other handicapped groups readily defined. It is also recommended that the Bureau of the Census furnish each state department of education with the names and addresses of all physically handicapped children within its borders. A federal census of physically handicapped children would be a valuable aid in supplementing the census taken by the states and local communities. It would also be extremely valuable as a uniform index of the number of handicapped children in the country and in each state and would indicate, at each ten-year period, the progress being made in reducing the numbers.

5. That the Public Health Service, in coöperation with educational agencies, prepare material for the use of school nurses, teachers and pupils in prevention work in the schools. A considerable proportion of the physical handicaps among children is due to ignorance of recognized preventive measures. The public schools, if provided with adequate information in regard to the prevention of physical handicaps, can perform a great constructive service in reducing the number. The Public Health Service, in coöperation with the educational societies, could also assist in preparing material for use in the public schools that will assist in the proper physical classification and grouping of children to safeguard their physical welfare.

6. That the Federal Board for Vocational Education make special studies to determine the occupational opportunities open to various groups of physically and mentally retarded children and suggest the kind of training programs best adapted to prepare them for economic citizenship. Organized vocational training in special vocational schools

maintained by the states and local communities can be given to a great many of these young people. A large percentage, however, will undoubtedly receive their training by means of special training programs provided at the place of employment. The training must be so carefully planned as to take into consideration not only the physical or mental handicap of the individual but also his particular aptitudes and abilities which may be capitalized in the training program. If properly trained and placed, a majority of these young people are fully as competent and dependable as persons of normal physical and mental ability.

7. That the Department of Labor make studies to determine to what extent labor and compensation laws prevent physically handicapped persons from securing employment. A further study is needed to determine what special provisions of labor and compensation laws should be enacted to safeguard adequately the interests of both employer and the physically handicapped employee. The Department of Labor can also do much to assist in breaking down the prejudice against the employment of persons with physical handicaps.

SERVICES OF THE STATES

8. That the states amend the education laws so as to provide supporting legislation and financial aid for a state-wide program of special education for handicapped children. The public educational structure of this country is founded on constitutional provisions and supporting legislation of the various states. The development of adequate educational services for handicapped children is dependent upon adequate legislative and financial support. It is recommended:

That the state educational laws be amended so as to authorize local school authorities to provide transportation, tuition, artificial appliances, board and room, and such other special services as may be necessary for the proper education of the various groups of handicapped children. In many states local school authorities, willing to provide special services for the handicapped, are unable to do so because the state educational laws do not authorize the expenditure of public monies for such purposes.

That the state education laws be amended so as to provide for an annual census of all physically handicapped minors from birth to twenty-one years of age, including the blind, deaf, hard-of-hearing, crippled, tubercular, cardiac, and those with vision defects. It is particularly important that the names and addresses, as well as the nature of the disabilities, of children of pre-school age be secured in order that the corrective work may be undertaken and, if possible,

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completed before the children enter school. A thorough census would also reveal the number of children in need of corrective physical work, the number who are not in school because transportation has not been provided, the number who cannot attend school unless special-class facilities are made available and also the number who are home-bound and in need of home teaching. Accurate information is essential if adequate services are to be provided.

That legislation be enacted by the states requiring local school authorities to establish and maintain special classes whenever there are ten or more children who are so handicapped as to require special-class services to insure their proper education.

That legislation be enacted by the states to equalize the cost of such services for physically handicapped children, including the salaries of supervisors and teachers, transportation, artificial appliances, board, tuition, placement and follow-up service. Financial aid by the state is essential in equalizing the cost of providing the necessary special services for these children.

That the states make available an appropriation for the necessary administrative and supervisory service in the state departments of education. Such an appropriation should be sufficient to employ competent supervisors and directors and provide for necessary clerical service, printing and traveling expenses. It is urgently recommended that every state make an appropriation sufficient to provide at least one well qualified supervisor to organize and administer a state-wide program for handicapped children and to assist local school authorities in developing proper educational services for these groups.

That the state legislature, whenever necessary, appropriate funds for the training of teachers for special-class work and the professional improvement of teachers in service.

That the state appropriate funds when necessary for the establishment and maintenance of special state institutions for the care and education of handicapped children.

That the state laws be amended authorizing the state department of education to determine the qualifications and certification of all teachers of handicapped children employed by state institutions and the public schools.

That the state laws be amended requiring state departments of education to approve the courses of study and supervise the education of handicapped children in all state institutions and the public schools.

That appropriate state laws be amended so as to authorize the judges of the children's courts, or other appropriate courts, to issue orders for the physical care and education of handicapped children,

the cost of such service to be made a charge against the county or other appropriate unit and that state aid be provided to equalize the cost of such service.

That the state educational laws be amended, whenever necessary, so as to provide for the establishment of special-education districts and the appointment of special-education commissions, or boards, which shall make provision for the education of physically handicapped children living in villages and rural communities. At present this is one of the most difficult problems as the numbers living in any one rural district are rarely large enough to justify the establishment of special classes such as exist in the cities. Special education commissions for counties or special administrative units must be provided in many states if adequate provision is to be made for the education of the thousands of handicapped children who live in villages and rural communities. Such commissions should be authorized to provide for the establishment of special classes, home teaching, transportation, and such other services as may be necessary in furnishing educational opportunities for these children.

The state rehabilitation laws should be amended authorizing the state rehabilitation service to provide occupational advice, vocational training and placement for all classes of physically handicapped children.

In order to insure a carefully coördinated state service for handicapped children, appropriate state laws should be amended providing for the appointment of a state advisory council composed of representatives of interested state departments. The council should include the state department of education, state department of health, state department of social welfare, state department of labor and any other interested state departments.

SERVICES OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

The following services should be provided by the state department of education:

9. Advisory and promotional service should be maintained to insure a continued development of the work for handicapped children. Such a service should include the making of surveys, consulting with local school authorities in regard to special classes, arranging for transportation, preparation of courses of study adapted to meet the needs of handicapped groups, coöperation with other public and private agencies in the development of a coördinated program of services, and advising with local communities in regard to special equipment necessary for special classes.

10. The appointment of an advisory council for handicapped children made up of representatives from interested public and private organizations, to assist in planning the state program for handicapped children. An advisory council would be an invaluable aid to the state department of education in securing general public support, legislation, and financial aid for the program. Many of the organizations interested in the welfare of handicapped children could provide certain special services impossible to maintain at public expense.

11. Organization and supervision of a program, whenever necessary, for the training and professional improvement of teachers of special classes. The training of teachers is a state responsibility. The quality of the educational services provided for handicapped children will be determined to a large extent by the thoroughness of the teacher-training program. In some states, the numbers of special-class teachers may not be large enough to warrant establishing a teacher training program. These states should secure trained teachers from recognized teacher-training institutions outside of the state, or arrange to send local teachers to such institutions for their professional preparation for special-class work.

12. Establishment of minimum standards for the certification of teachers and supervisors of special classes. Minimum standards prescribed by the state are essential to insure the employment of well trained teachers for special classes.

13. The establishment of minimum standards governing the organization of special classes, such standards to include size of classes, special equipment and facilities, supplies, length of school day and school year, courses of study, and personal service.

14. Organization and supervision of the educational work for handicapped children in state supported institutions. In many states the educational work in state institutions for handicapped children is not under the supervision of the state department of education. This work should meet the same minimum standards relative to qualifications of teachers, course of study, equipment, supplies, and other services as is prescribed for the public schools, and the educational classes should be regularly supervised by representatives of the state department of education.

15. Supervision of the annual census of physically handicapped children. The state department of education, in cooperation with the local school authorities, should determine the information to be secured in regard to all physically handicapped children from birth to twenty-one years of age. Copies of the names and addresses, together with information in regard to the nature of the disability and

needed educational services, should be sent to the state department of education. An accurate census is essential in planning a thorough educational program for physically handicapped children. The state department of education should carefully tabulate census returns and recommend the establishment of such special services as may be necessary to care adequately for the educational needs of all physically handicapped children.

16. Maintenance of clinics to aid local communities in examining physically handicapped children. It is impossible for the rural schools, or many of the village and small-city schools, to provide a qualified staff to examine them. In many cases special equipment is needed for the examination. Reliable clinical service is necessary to classify properly and group the handicapped children in need of special educational service. State departments of education should have a staff properly equipped to render this important service to the rural and village schools.

17. Supervision of all special classes by qualified persons so as to insure proper educational standards and the meeting of the minimum standards prescribed by the state. This supervision should also include the approval of all special classes for receiving special state aid.

SERVICES OF LOCAL COMMUNITIES

18. The development of adequate educational opportunities for the handicapped children depends to a very large degree upon the willingness and ability of the local schools to furnish them. Laws providing for the establishment of special classes for handicapped children, generous state aid, trained leadership in the offices of the state departments of education are all invaluable aids in the development of the work. Of equal importance is the realization on the part of every local community of its responsibility for the education of the handicapped children. The numbers of handicapped children in the urban communities are usually large enough to warrant the establishment of special classes and the maintenance of other special services including transportation, home teaching, vocational guidance and training, special clinical examination, artificial appliances, and placement and follow-up service. A majority of the urban communities have sufficient wealth to provide these services. In these communities the major problems of organization include: (a) a census and special surveys to determine the numbers and needs of the handicapped groups; (b) the establishment of special classes; (c) the providing of transportation in order to bring the groups together for special work; (d) vocational guidance and training to insure prepa-

ration for earning a living; (e) placement and follow-up service to assist these young people to become established in occupational life; (f) adequate supervisory service; and (g) the appointment of committees representing interested groups to aid in the development of the program.

19. The problem in the rural districts and villages, because of the limited number of children to be served in any one district, is to provide the services enumerated above for the urban districts. In states with county school organizations it would be possible for the county board of education to furnish special services for handicapped children, on a county-wide basis. Children could be brought together at convenient centers for special-class work and other special services. The county board of education could provide transportation, clinical service, home teaching, guidance, and placement. In the states without county education boards it will be necessary, if this problem is to be met, to create special education districts and appoint special education commissions responsible for the education of the handicapped groups. We must recognize that these children in rural districts will never receive an adequate education until proper facilities are provided for their training. Unless such facilities are provided these children must go through life with a double handicap.

20. The committee reports which appear in this volume of the White House Conference discuss in detail the special problems involved in the organization, administration, and supervision of an educational program for the various groups of handicapped children. The extent to which this problem will be solved depends upon: (1) a recognition of the educational needs of the various groups of handicapped children; (2) the employment of competent leadership by national, state, and local organizations; (3) adequate legislation to encourage and promote the work; (4) financial support to provide needed services; (5) the coordinated and united support of the many agencies interested in the welfare of handicapped children; and (6) a realization of community responsibility for the education of its handicapped children.²⁰

THE BUILDING PRINCIPAL AND SPECIAL CLASSES

It is through the local school units that the educational system of a city makes its contact with children. Consequently the principal and the teaching corps of each building have specific relationships and responsibilities regarding the city's

²⁰ *Special Education, The Handicapped and the Gifted*, pp. 584-593.

program for exceptional children. The immediate responsibilities of the staff within a local unit will depend in part upon the manner in which the district makes provision for exceptional children. Many of the smaller cities have not established special classes or schools. In such cases the extreme deviates are committed to state institutions while the less atypical pupils, those who would ordinarily be assigned to special classes, are cared for in the regular classes.

If all children, including the non-typical, are assigned to the regular classes, the principal is confronted with additional problems resulting from the greater heterogeneity of the pupil population. Special techniques are frequently necessary to obtain a comprehensive survey of the physical, educational, and mental status of the enrolled pupils. Since psychologists, physicians, and other specialists are frequently not available, the principal must be competent to take charge of the work or to direct his teachers in the work. The techniques employed may not be as refined as those used by the specialist, yet they must be adequate so that the principal may be assured that no misratings which might result in gross errors of procedure have been made. In the light of the results of surveys, the curricula, classification and promotion practices, and classroom method and management must be scrutinized with somewhat greater care than would otherwise be necessary. The administrative policies and the entire organization of the school must be shaped in a way which will permit classroom teachers to make adequate provisions for the peculiar needs of those pupils who are found to be atypical. The supervisory activities of the principal will need to be adjusted to the conditions at hand. Teachers may need assistance and in-service training to enable them better to identify pupils in need of special treatment. Teachers may also need direction and assistance in the selection and application of appropriate remedial devices, or in the adjustment or enrichment of the curriculum, or in the selection of instructional materials. Frequently a principal can render a teacher great service by

directing her to helpful professional literature dealing with the peculiar problems confronting her at the time.

In communities in which the educational program of the city includes a variety of special classes, the problems of the principal regarding deviate children are usually met in one of two ways, namely, by establishing special rooms in his own school, or by securing their transfer to special rooms in other schools or to special schools provided by the school system. A questionnaire on "Special Classes and Schools," issued in September, 1929,³⁰ disclosed that in eighteen out of twenty-three large cities, special classes are supervised wholly or in part by principals. In other cases, supervisors or directors of special classes or other representatives of the superintendent's staff have charge of the work. These data suggest that in the majority of cases a number of principals in each city will have within their buildings one or more types of special classes under their supervision. The principals of buildings housing special classes will have the responsibility, not only for the identification and transfer of pupils from regular to special classes, but also for the general administration and supervision of the work in special classes.

Although much of the detailed work of diagnosis, remedial treatment, and classroom procedure will be directed by specialists in the respective fields, many additional responsibilities will fall upon the principal. The principal must understand the special needs of deviate children in order to make proper administrative provisions for them.³¹ The program and work of the regular school must be coördinated with that for the special groups. Usually child-accounting records, such as attendance, report cards, transfer and admittance forms, employment records, and placements for those who have terminated their school life, are handled through the principal's

³⁰ *Educational Research Service*, National Education Association, *Circular No. 6* (Washington, D. C., 1930), p. 14.

³¹ W. C. Reavis and others, *The Elementary School* (University of Chicago Press, 1931), p. 207.

office. Unless the building has been specifically designed for the special groups it is to house, adjustments of plant may be needed and special equipment installed. If pupils are assigned to the special groups from other buildings in the city, or if the special groups consist of crippled children, the general supervision of pupil transportation may be delegated to the principal. There may also be general supervisory relations between the principal and the special-class teachers, calling for specialized supervisory techniques, stimulation and guidance in professional growth, and general coöperation and support of the work of special teachers. In fact, the principal who finds within his building one or more special groups will have endless opportunity to render professional service of a high type in many phases of the work of public education.

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CHAPTER XIII

PUBLIC RELATIONS

The school is the most important social activity conducted by the group for the child in the interests of society. It is essential that the members of society comprehend the place and function of the school as its agent, for the schools cannot rise above the conception of their function by the social group. Public-school relations constitute the organized factual information service for the purpose of keeping the public informed of its educational program.¹

The basis for a public-relations program is twofold.² The first factor is the vital necessity of education in a complex, urban-industrial, democratic society. The second factor is the deep faith which the American people have in education. A legitimate assumption is that the people of every community want good schools and that this desire for good schools for their children lies very close to their hearts. Parental ambitions and interests in children are so vital that people will sacrifice all but the barest subsistence in order that their children may be educated. Since this desire for the education of their children is realized largely through the system of public schools, the people have a right to demand continuous information about the developments in educational science. The educator, in turn, is obligated to keep society informed on developments in education so the people may be in a position to request that "best education" which they cherish for their

¹ A. B. Mochlman, *Public School Relations* (Rand McNally and Co., 1927), p. 4.

² J. H. Newlon, "A Public Relations Program for 1932-33," *School Executives Magazine*, Vol. 52 (September, 1932), p. 26.

children. A comprehensive and continuous program for informing the public will do much to remove the criticisms directed against the schools because of a lack of public enlightenment regarding the aims which have motivated educators for several decades.³ An informed public will be a sympathetic public for it is an established truth that people are sympathetic of that with which they are familiar and suspicious of that which they do not understand.⁴

THE LOCAL SCHOOL IN THE PUBLIC-RELATIONS PROGRAM

Each local elementary school plays a very important part in the public-relations program. The mother-child relationship is perhaps closer during the elementary period than at any other time. Hence the principal and the teachers in an elementary school can make better contact with their community than is possible in the secondary schools. Also, the public at large comes into immediate contact with the program for public education largely through local school units. Superintendents' bulletins, annual reports of boards of education, and articles on education in the leading newspapers of the city are frequently generalized in character and somewhat remote from the interests of the individual citizen. At any rate, such general treatises do not strike the vital keynotes which are touched by information about the activities in the neighborhood school which Jane or Rufus attends. Because of the greater interest in the problems relating to members of one's immediate family, each elementary school occupies a strategic position in effecting community contacts and in disseminating the information necessary to the development of a citizenry intelligent about public education.

The complexity of the population of many cities makes

³ F. K. Berrien, "Public Education Must Be Resold to the Taxpayers," *School Executives Magazine*, Vol. 52 (November, 1932), p. 99.

⁴ W. A. Kincaid, "A Small City Attempts Publicity," *School Executives Magazine*, Vol. 51 (July, 1932), p. 488.

centralized publicity somewhat ineffective, regardless of how well it may be organized and carried out. The social and educational status of school patrons differs sufficiently from one part of the city to another that uniform methods and materials for informing the public cannot be used with equal effectiveness throughout the city. Each type of community may have distinctive attitudes regarding education, may look to the school for the achievement of different purposes, and may be interested through channels and types of information quite peculiar to the group. As the characteristic attributes of a neighborhood are discovered and analyzed, the public-relations program can be adapted to make it most useful and helpful to a particular school and its patrons.⁵

The purposes of relations with the community centering around a given school are usually twofold: (1) to interpret the work of the school and the teachers to the community, and (2) to aid the superintendent in acquainting the community with the broader aims of the school system and in winning the cooperation and support of the public for the educational program of the city.⁶ In a measure the two purposes are complementary. As each local school supplies its share of the total educational program, it will have associated with it a certain portion of the total public. The extent to which the aims of the school system are advanced will depend largely upon the success of each principal in securing the cooperation of the community to which his school ministers. The two purposes named above imply that the principal participates extensively in activities which will inform his constituency regarding the work in his own school as well as the more general aspects of the school system which seem pertinent. It must also be recognized that community contacts

⁵ For illustration of suggestive techniques for making surveys of the community, see Chapter III in *The Principal and His Community*, the *Eleventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association (Washington, D. C., 1932).

⁶ W. C. Reavis, P. R. Pierce, and E. H. Stullken, *The Elementary School* (University of Chicago Press, 1931), p. 439.

facilitate the attainment of the objectives of the school. The effectiveness of an educational program depends in no small measure upon the cooperative endeavor of the home and the school. If these two most potent influences in the training of youth do not work in harmony and supplement one another, the results may be very discouraging.

Another factor which gives increased importance to each elementary school as a unit in the public-relations program is the tendency toward the decentralization of administration in large cities. In many instances cities have grown so large and complex that the machinery for school administration which functions with comparative satisfaction in cities of lesser size does not seem to work effectively. Some students of educational administration have ventured the statement that adequate techniques for the administration of very large city school systems have not been developed. Whether this surmise is true or not, it is apparent that individual schools in large cities have a more remote and less direct relationship to the central offices than do schools in smaller cities. The former schools enjoy greater local autonomy and freedom than do the latter. This difference in latitude of operations gives opportunity for the development of greater individuality in local units, and hence a better chance for adapting the school to the needs of the immediate community. This independence at once places greater responsibilities and demands for leadership upon the principal. Paralleling the above tendencies one observes the gradual evolution of the professional, supervising elementary-school principal. The principal emerges from teaching assignments and administrative and clerical detail to become the educational leader and administrator of the elementary school. Supervisory organizations are being changed in several cities in order that administrative and supervisory duties may center in the principalship. As these developments continue it is likely that the elementary principal and each elementary school will assume a new rôle in the public-relations program. Heretofore unexploited tech-

niques for informing the public and securing their coöperation may be brought into action. The application of the old as well as the new methods of securing community contacts may be delegated largely to the elementary-school principal and his teachers. Each local school will thus serve increasingly important functions in the field of public relations.

TYPES OF INFORMATION DESIRED BY THE PUBLIC

Perhaps the most important phase of a public-relations program is keeping the public well informed about the purposes and the work of the schools. Information about education may be disseminated in a variety of ways, but regardless of the methods of publicity that are used, it is important that the public be given the kind of information which it most desires to know. Farley, in an investigation of the interest of school patrons in topics of school news in thirteen widely distributed cities, found that the public desires most to know about pupil progress and achievement (Table LXXIV), methods of instruction, health of pupils, and courses of study.⁷ In other words, school patrons wish to know what their children are being taught, how they are being taught, what results are being achieved, and how the public schools affect the physical welfare of their children. In commenting upon the findings of his investigation, Farley states:

The patron could not have declared himself more receptive to the type of publicity for which the school publicist most needs to secure acceptance. In terms of educational results the people ask, What are you doing? How do you do it? Of what value is it? They are not asking how much it costs, or how well the pupils are housed, or whether the teacher admonishes them with kindness, or whether proper accounting is made of funds. They are ready to listen to the educator tell them that the results achieved in the schools are desirable, that they are achieved by efficient, scientific methods, that children are taught useful habits and skills, that their physical welfare is not

⁷ B. M. Farley, *What to Tell the People About the Public Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 355 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929), p. 16.

neglected. They are ready to hear the province of public-school education defined, and the trust placed in the education profession justified.⁸

TABLE LXXIV

RANK ORDER OF INTERESTS OF 5,067 SCHOOL PATRONS IN THE TOPICS OF SCHOOL NEWS *

Totals of Rank	Mean Rank	Order Rank	The Topics of School News
I 24,076.	4.7	1	Pupil progress and achievement
24,117	4.7	2	Methods of instruction
24,420...	4.8	3	Health of pupils
25,731 ..	5.0	4	Courses of study
II 28,408 ..	5.6	5	Value of education
30,186...	5.9	6	Discipline and behavior of pupils
32,791....	6.4	7	Teachers and school officers
37,134.	7.3	8	Attendance
40,706 ...	8.0	9	School buildings and building program
III 45,805...	9.0	10	Business management and finance
46,506....	9.1	11	Board of education and administration
49,294 ..	9.7	12	Parent-teachers association
51,240 ..	10.1	13	Extracurricular activities

* From B. M. Farley, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

Among the avenues available for school publicity is the newspaper, both daily and weekly. That the content of newspaper publicity has been quite out of harmony with the major interests of school patrons is amply demonstrated by a second phase of Farley's study as well as by the investigations of others.⁹ An examination by Farley of 39,265 column-inches of school news in 737 issues of ten newspapers showed the percentage of space devoted to the various topics of school

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 17.

⁹ J. E. Grinnell, *Newspaper Publicity for the Public Schools of the State of Minnesota*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Minnesota Library, 1925.

P. A. Hedlund, "School Publicity in the Press," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 31 (April, 1931), pp. 585-591.

news to be as shown in Figure 25. The discrepancy between what the people desire to know and what they are being told through school news is at once apparent. Approximately 25 per cent of the total amount of school news has for its subject

the one-half of the field of school activities in which patrons have the greatest interest (Table LXXV), while 75 per cent, or three times as much space, is given to the one-half of the field in which patrons have the lesser interest.

It is unfortunate that so much of the newspaper publicity has been devoted to topics which are not those of major interest to school patrons. Extracurricular activities, such as athletics, dramatics, and operettas, have received

Topic	Per cent
Extra-Curricular Activities	47.1
Teachers and School Officers	9.2
Parent-Teachers Association	8.2
Pupil Progress and Achievement	5.6
Board of Education and Administration	5.2
Course of Study	5.0
Business Management and Finance	4.3
Buildings	4.1
Health	3.3
Methods of Instruction	2.9
Discipline	1.7
Value of Education	1.5
Attendance	1.3
Total	99.9

FIG. 25. PERCENTAGES OF NEWS SPACE DEVOTED TO VARIOUS SCHOOL ACTIVITIES.

From B. M. Farley, *What to Tell the People about the Public Schools*, p. 49.

much attention. Unless care is taken the public will receive the impression that the school exists to produce winning teams and brilliant theatricals. No wonder the people in some quarters believe that modern education consists largely of "fads and frills." The elementary principal who undertakes to direct a public-relations program in his community may well take heed of these data and remember that education centers in the child.

TABLE LXXV

DISAGREEMENT BETWEEN INTERESTS OF PATRONS AND NEWS SPACE
COVERED BY THE TOPICS OF INTEREST *

Rank According to Interest	Topic	Column- Inches of Space Covered	Per Cent of Total News Space
1	Pupil progress and achievement....	9,675.25	24.6
2	Methods of instruction.....		
3	Health of pupils.....		
4	Courses of study.....		
5	Value of education.....		
6	Discipline and behavior.....		
7	Teachers.....	29,589.75	75.4
8	Attendance.....		
9	Buildings and building program....		
10	Business management and finance..		
11	Board of education.....		
12	Parent-teacher association.....		
13	Extracurricular activities.....		

* From B. M. Farley, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

The behavior of children at school, the regularity of attendance, the qualifications of teachers, school boards, school buildings, and school costs are merely incidental to results in child development, and it is significant that parents and teachers say collectively that they are more interested in results than in any other one aspect of public education. What people desire to know about the schools may well be taken into consideration in planning community contacts and types of school publicity other than the newspaper.

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP AS A BASIS FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

The point of view conveyed in this chapter is to the effect that each local school shall take, not only an active interest in, but carry the major responsibility for establishing com-

munity contacts, keeping the public informed about the schools, and developing wholesome attitudes regarding the schools. Naturally the principal of an elementary school must assume the leadership and direction of the program of public relations if it is to succeed. Whatever activities or contacts are initiated by the principal and his staff will be assured greater success if the principal has gained the respect of his community and is recognized as a leader in his own profession as well as in his school community. Confidence in the soundness of policies advocated by the school and faith in the integrity of those directing the activities is of prime importance in determining the receptivity of the people of any school publicity. Community leadership on the part of the principal is thus an important basis for a public-relations program. Through a dynamic leadership a large number of devices and avenues may be used effectively in building up community support and solidarity. Some of the methods which have been used with success by various principals are discussed in the succeeding paragraphs.

WINNING THE SUPPORT OF PARENTS THROUGH THEIR CHILDREN

The children enrolled in a school constitute one of the most immediate and direct means of establishing contacts between the school and its patrons. The opinions of the school which parents hold are conditioned in no small measure by the reactions to the work of the school which children carry home daily. If the school is a vital factor in the lives of children they will reflect its influences in the home. It is an exceptional parent who does not discuss frequently with his children their interests and their activities. If the school can guide the interests of children, those interests are shared by the parents. The loyalty of the children to the school is caught by the parents and the opinions of children regarding the school become the opinions of parents. There is no thought here of

implying that the school should continuously stage vaudevilles to entertain pupils. That is entirely unnecessary. Good teaching can stimulate vital interests in the legitimate activities of the curriculum which will result in the most desirable educational growth of children and will cause pupils to discuss with their parents those aspects of school work which the profession should like to have them know better.

In addition to using the curriculum of the school as a means for developing community attitudes through children, the school may utilize its direct contacts between parents and teachers, the various organizations of parents, and the periodic reports to parents. Many schools fail to capitalize upon the opportunities afforded by the monthly or six-week's reports of pupil progress which are issued. In the majority of cases the report card is a colorless, stultified routine which evokes criticism from dissatisfied parents and little or no reaction from others. The conventional report card is not a constructive device for informing parents of the work of the school or the progress of the pupil or for developing coöperation between the home and the school. To overcome these weaknesses of the commonly used report cards, some schools are supplementing them with personal letters from the principal or teacher. Such letters, whether carried home by children at the regular report period or at other times, give occasion for explaining in simple language the purpose of activities recently initiated in the school, setting up school objectives which depend upon home coöperation for their development, expressing appreciation of the interest and training given by parents and suggesting other activities in which coöperation is desired, recognizing satisfactory achievements with definite suggestions as to how parents may help children, seeking coöperation in the adjustment of problem children, as well as numerous other items which might be suggested.¹⁰

¹⁰ For illustrations of letters to parents, see Florentine Peters, "Personal Letters Build Cordial Attitudes," in the *Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1932), pp. 227-233.

COMMUNITY CONTACTS EFFECTED BY THE SCHOOL STAFF

One avenue for securing more intimate relations between the school and the community, the possibilities of which have not been fully exhausted in most places, consists of direct contacts between the members of the school staff and the parents. Teachers testify almost unanimously of the increased understanding of the attitudes and actions of their pupils which results from visits in the homes, yet there are many teachers who have never set foot inside the home of a single one of their pupils. If a thorough understanding of the *whole* child is essential for effective education, home visits by teachers seem imperative. From the viewpoint of school publicity, teachers may utilize home visits and interviews with parents to explain the work of the school, what it is attempting to do, and how parents may coöperate.

There are also other staff members, such as the visiting teacher, the attendance officer, and the school nurse, who make frequent contacts with the homes of pupils. These contacts may bear endless fruit in promoting enthusiastic support of the schools and in welding together more closely the endeavors of parents and teachers, or they may engender antagonisms if these staff officers do not approach their work with the proper point of view. It is essential that the principal recognize fully how the community contacts of teachers and staff officers may be utilized in a program of public relations and then to direct their efforts through desirable channels.

WELFARE GROUPS AND GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES

Another source of community contacts which is growing in importance, especially during periods of economic stress, is welfare groups and the various governmental agencies. A survey made in 1931 by a committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals and the Research Division of

the National Education Association showed that contacts with sixteen non-governmental agencies were reported by one or more of the 1,083 schools of all sizes.¹¹ The three most frequently reported agencies and the percentage of schools naming each are as follows: child welfare societies, 70.5 per cent; charity groups, 63.2 per cent; religious and denominational agencies, 44.7 per cent. In addition to these, eleven governmental agencies were reported as making direct contact with the educational program of the school. The governmental agencies reported by 63 or more per cent of the schools are the health department, the public library, the police department and safety councils, the fire department, and the juvenile courts. It is generally understood that the school cannot assume to be the sole educator of the child, nor can the school assume full responsibility for the many social and economic factors which must be considered and provided if the work of the school is to be effective. Agencies other than the school inevitably enter the picture. The more extensive the coöperation between the school and the outside forces the more effective may be the work of both and the higher will rise the position of the school in the estimation of the community.

DISPLAY OF CHILDREN'S WORK AND ACTIVITIES

It is very difficult for parents who have not been in touch with educational procedure since they attended school to understand or to learn about modern educational procedure. About the only time some parents hear about the school or come in contact with it is when they attend some special extracurriculum activity, such as a football game or an auditorium program. To enable the public to obtain a more comprehensive view of the actual work of the school, those in authority have encouraged visitation by patrons. In addition to a continuous and urgent invitation for parents to visit at any and all times, a special week may be set aside during

¹¹ *The Principal and His Community*, op. cit., pp. 166-169.

which all children are encouraged to urge their parents to visit. This method distributes the attendance of adults over several days, thus bringing fewer visitors into the schools at any one time and causing less disruption in the school routine. The public thus has a better chance to see the normal functioning of the school and to view modern education in its natural setting. During such special-visitation weeks extensive displays of pupil products may be made if desired. Some schools try to have all the visitors remain for a conference at the close of the session so teachers and principal may explain in some detail the nature and purposes of the activities which were observed. In this way misinterpretations may be avoided. An opportune time for having a visitor's week is National Education Week.

The experience of most schools is that it is nigh to impossible to get fathers to visit the regular day sessions of the school because their respective vocations demand their time. To enable the fathers as well as employed mothers to get a glimpse of the school in action, some schools have found it desirable to set aside a special day or two during which the afternoon session is postponed until in the evening. Frequently such evening sessions are attended by large numbers, especially if a meeting of the parent-teacher association and a lunch follow the conclusion of the school program. This type of "evening school" has the advantage of enabling many persons to come who otherwise could not appear. One of its chief disadvantages is that the large number of visitors, together with the fact that the session is in the evening and that the children are not accustomed to so many visitors, makes the situation so artificial that a true perspective of school work cannot be gained.

Of course, exhibits of various kinds and extracurricular activities may be used to establish community contacts. One should be fully aware, however, of their limitations as means of acquainting the public with the more vital phases of school work. Children's programs can become very time consuming for both teachers and pupils and, outside of the entertainment

which they provide for the parents, net few desirable results from the viewpoint of public relations. It would be more desirable to invite parents to view the culmination, crude as it may be, of the projects and units of work which are natural phases of the curriculum of the schools. The display of children's work and activities, if sanely used, may be utilized as an effective part of the program of public relations.

ORGANIZATIONS FOR CHILDREN

Although the various organizations for children may be considered as primarily curricular in character, they do give opportunity for extending the interests of the public in the schools. A committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals reported eleven different types of organizations for children in the schools surveyed.¹² The organizations most commonly found are Boy Scouts, Junior Red Cross, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, and Girl Reserves. From among the many values which might be cited as accruing from these children's organizations, perhaps the most important one from the viewpoint of public relations is the recognition by the people that the school is attempting to direct the leisure-time activities of children into worth-while channels.

PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION AND PARENT-EDUCATION GROUPS

The various parent groups constitute the outstanding official organizations through which the principal may carry on his community work. In Table LXXVI one may observe that the parent-teacher association is by far the most frequently found organization of adults which takes an active interest in the school and coöperates with the teachers in carrying on certain phases of the work. The fact that certain parents manifest enough interest in the school to join the

¹² *The Principal and His Community*, op. cit., p. 170.

TABLE LXXVI

ADULT GROUPS WORKING IN CONNECTION WITH THE SCHOOL PROGRAM *

GROUPS REPORTED	SCHOOL SIZE			
	149 Schools Over 1,000	516 Schools 500- 1,000	418 Schools Under 500	1,083 Schools of All Sizes
	Per Cent	Per Cent	Per Cent	Per Cent
Parent-teacher association...	52.3	75.6	80.6	74.3
Mothers' clubs.	26.8	18.4	13.9	17.8
Luncheon clubs.	16.8	11.2	15.6	13.7
Adult study groups.	11.4	12.8	11.0	11.9
Adult civic and improvement clubs.	4.0	9.7	8.1	8.3
Adult recreation groups.	7.4	7.0	4.5	6.1
Fathers' clubs.	3.4	3.1	2.4	2.9

* From the *Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1932), p. 163.

parent-teacher association, the mother's club, or some adult study group makes it evident that these organizations constitute ideal bodies through which the principal and his teachers can disseminate knowledge about modern educational procedures. The intelligent principal is constantly alert to seize every opportunity to direct the activities and the programs of adult groups so that they will be a constructive influence in the school and will be learning about the scientific developments in modern education instead of imposing out-grown ideas upon the school.

If not properly guided, adult groups closely associated with the school may become very annoying and at times disrupt sound aspects of the educational program. Under no circumstances should any of the adult groups be led to believe that it is within their domain to dictate educational policies and procedures. It is assumed that the principal and the

teachers are engaged by the community as professionally trained experts to carry on the work of public education and it should be the prerogatives of the trained personnel to determine the manner in which such educational offerings as the community can afford shall be conducted. It would be folly to hire trained people and then have their activities directed by persons untrained in education. Adult groups should be conscious of the fact that they are helping with something the school wants to do rather than getting the school to do something. There are endless ways in which a parent-teacher association may lend assistance.

The above statements do not imply that the principal should assume a haughty or self-appointed attitude. In fact, any principal who really possesses professional leadership need not stoop to autocratic or intellectually belittling tactics to impose his leadership upon the group. The public is not slow to recognize superior ability where it exists, to ascertain the sincerity of the individual, and to assent willingly to follow his advice and guidance. The relationships between the adult groups and the school should always be most cordial and coöperative. If these organizations are used as means for parent education, they will serve, incidentally, as one of the most potent avenues for school publicity. It should be said in passing that desirable relationships between adult groups and the school are not likely to result unless the principal takes an active interest in the adult organization and participates in its meetings. The principal must take the lead or be led. There are no intervening stages. Work with various types of parent groups has been under way for a long enough period so that many helpful suggestions regarding programs and activities are available in published form.¹³

¹³ Write to the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C., for a list of publications and for answers to your questions.

ADULT EVENING CLASSES

Many schools provide opportunities for adult education through such agencies as evening classes, Americanization classes, or classes in English for the foreign born. Schools situated in centers populated by large numbers of foreign-speaking people may so interest the adults of the neighborhood in educational work that the school becomes to them the center of community life. Frequently the foreign-born who have been assisted in their adjustment to American life through classes for adults are so grateful for this help and kind encouragement that the school stands at the pinnacle of their thinking as a representation of American ideals. Many school systems which do not offer evening instruction offer, through the kindergarten, the lunchroom, or the school clinic, certain day-school opportunities for the instruction of parents and thus promote desirable community relations.

✓ THE SCHOOL AS A CENTER OF COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

In many of the smaller municipalities as well as in certain sections of large cities there are few if any opportunities for the members of the community to participate in wholesome, constructive recreational activities. Usually this paucity of leisure-time interests is due to the absence of a building and grounds, the inadequacy of incomes, or the lack of leadership and coördinated effort. Frequently, under such conditions, the school can come to the rescue and offer such facilities as it has to establish the school as a community center. Under properly selected leadership and supervision the recreational activities may become a focus about which public opinion can be developed and be the unifying force which gives solidarity to the community.

By establishing the school as the center of community activities a noble service may be rendered to the community at little cost, and forward steps may be taken in extending

the program of public relations. The evening recreational program initiated in the Tyson-Schoener School of Reading, Pennsylvania, in 1930, illustrates the services that may be rendered through coöperative effort.¹⁴ Three bodies worked together in launching the program. The board of education furnished the building, light, heat, and janitor service; the Junior League furnished the funds for teachers' salaries and equipment; while the department of recreation supervised the center. Social dancing, both with and without instruction, tap dancing, wrestling, boxing, men's and ladies' gymnasium periods, glee club, dramatics, indoor baseball, basketball, men's game night, leathercraft class, and library were among the activities provided. Within a year the total membership grew to more than 1,500 persons. An after-school program from 3:45 P.M. to 5:00 P.M. was also arranged for pupils enrolled in the school. Special-interest and special-talent clubs and classes were provided. Through this extended program the school is rendering invaluable service to the mass of the people, at all times under proper leadership and supervision. Latent talents and unspent energies are directed into wholesome channels and the school becomes the center around which the life of the community flows.

CONTACTS WITH ORGANIZATIONS AND INSTITUTIONS

In every community may be found one or more organizations of a social, civic, religious, or patriotic character which are interested in certain phases of child and community welfare and whose coöperation may be solicited in the solution of problems which arise. The heads of churches, parochial and private schools, business men's clubs, women's clubs, and organizations such as the Kiwanis, Lions, Rotary, and the American Legion posts have definite interests in community welfare and are usually willing helpers in the adjustment of

¹⁴S. F. Fink, "The School as a Recreational Center," *The Principal and His Community*, *op. cit.*, pp. 313-318.

difficult social problems affecting the school and the community at large.¹⁵ The principal who desires to establish broad contacts with the community served by his school will also welcome the cordiality of these organizations as means of extending his program of public relations.

The educational and recreational opportunities for children may be augmented by maintaining cordial relations with the officials of museums, art institutes, aquariums, the public library, historical societies, and such other similar institutions as may exist in the city. Invariably these institutions have much to offer for the enrichment of curricular activities. To accept their willing coöperation benefits the school and demonstrates to the outside agencies the character of educational objectives and the problems associated with the work of the school.

THE PUBLIC PRESS AND STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

Earlier paragraphs in this chapter have indicated the nature of present newspaper publicity and have suggested the direction in which more desirable types of newspaper publicity might take form. The principal should realize that there are few more potent influences in the community than the local newspaper and that its columns provide one of the best ways to develop his public-relations program. Local newspapers invariably welcome school news if those in charge of schools will only inconvenience themselves sufficiently to study the kinds of school topics which are of interest to the public and then to prepare the desired materials. That the public press is receptive to increasing quantities of school news is shown by Hedlund's study.¹⁶ In comparing the data of his study of school publicity in the public daily and weekly newspapers of Minnesota in 1920-1930 with corresponding data from

¹⁵ For illustrations of the kinds of coöperation extended by service clubs, see *The Principal and His Community*, *op. cit.*, Ch. 8.

¹⁶ P. A. Hedlund, "School Publicity in the Press," *op. cit.*, pp. 585-591.

Grinnell's study, he found that the weekly newspapers in Minnesota published 598 columns of school news in 1929-1930 as compared with 317 columns for a similar week in 1924-1925, while twenty-nine daily papers published 320 columns and 703 articles on school topics in 1929-1930 as compared with 176 columns and 326 articles in thirty-three dailies in 1924-1925. Many newspapers maintain special columns headed "School News" or "School Notes" as well as giving front-page space to feature articles. These are of genuine value, for the special school-news column is eagerly sought by children who in turn arouse the interest of parents until the school topics become matters of first concern when the paper is delivered to the house.

The school paper prepared largely by the pupils is used by some schools as a means for acquainting the local community with important news concerning the school. Doubtless this method of school publicity is of greatest value in localities where large proportions of the school patrons cannot afford or cannot read the regularly published daily or weekly papers. In the latter case portions of the mimeographed school bulletin may be prepared in one or two of the prevailing foreign tongues so that non-English-speaking parents may get a few glimpses of the activities of the school. In English speaking communities only 26.4 per cent of 178 principals found mimeographed bulletins very useful in making contacts with the homes.¹⁷ Perhaps a school paper serves its greatest usefulness as a curricular activity and a training device for children. If this point of view governs the preparation of the school paper, children's interests and experiences may be utilized to a greater extent than if the paper is intended for the adult public. Incidentally its values for school publicity may be equally large if children are permitted to take their copies

¹⁷ E. W. Cober (Chairman), *Report of the Research Committee, Bulletin* of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, Vol. 10, No. 1 (October, 1930), pp. 17-18.

home and to read them to their parents.¹⁸ If an elementary school paper is prepared for extensive public consumption those delegated to supervise its issuance become concerned about its character and quality as a product of the schools. Usually higher standards of content and materials are sought until the paper is not a student enterprise, but a teacher publication. Under such circumstances it is questionable whether the outcomes derived for the pupils and for the school are sufficient to warrant the expenditure of time and energy by teachers and pupils. If the cost of materials becomes prohibitive subscriptions must be sought from the public. It is extremely doubtful whether such undertakings can be justified for an elementary school.

THE TEACHER IN THE PUBLIC-RELATIONS PROGRAM

The important part which teachers have in the development of public relations is sometimes overlooked. The classroom teacher, through her daily contact with pupils, has the most immediate and the most direct opportunities for securing the interest and the support of parents. Perhaps the best single instrument in the possession of teachers for securing sympathetic admiration from parents is *good classroom teaching*. Pupils are quick to recognize the teacher who constantly gives them intellectual stimulation, who gives firm but sympathetic guidance, and who understands each and every child, emotionally as well as academically. The opinions of pupils are not slow to reach the ears of parents. The attitudes of children are likely to become, or at least to color, the attitudes of parents.

In addition to her missions through classroom instruction, the teacher can do much to build community relations through her immediate contact with parents who call on her at school

¹⁸ For a list of tentative criteria for judging pupil publications, see Georgia H. Lacey, "Pupil Publications," in *The Principal and His Community*, *op. cit.*, pp. 351-355.

or on whom she calls at their homes. In all her contacts with school patrons the teacher should recognize the strategic position which she has in the public-relations program. She should be a constant ambassador for the schools, explaining carefully to parents the purposes of various phases of school work, and seeking their whole-hearted coöperation so that the efforts of both the home and the school may be more effective.¹⁹ Home visits by teachers have been found particularly helpful in the adjustment of problem cases.

THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL IN THE PUBLIC-RELATIONS PROGRAM

Throughout the preceding discussion of school publicity and community contacts the thought has centered around the important part which each local school has in the public-relations program and the community leadership which must be demonstrated by the elementary-school principal if the public is to be adequately and continuously informed about the work of the schools. By way of summary it might be pointed out that the elementary principal is the most important field administrative agent in the public-relations program. His is the responsibility for planning, executing, and appraising the effectiveness of the operation of the public-relations program and its value to instruction.²⁰

The consensus among experienced administrators seems to be that the principal's success or failure depends in large degree upon his activities in his community. Superintendent Cody points out that the principal who makes a success of his community relations does three things well: (1) he is alert to secure from the whole community the comments and suggestions which bear upon child welfare; (2) he interprets the

¹⁹ J. F. Waller, "The School Personnel and a Public-Relations Program," *School Executives Magazine*, Vol. 51 (August, 1932), pp. 17-18.

²⁰ A. B. Mochlman, "The Elementary Principal in Public Relations," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 7 (April, 1931), pp. 43-46

program of his particular school and of the whole school system to the people of his community; and (3) he shares actively in the varied activities and interests of his community.²¹ In order to attain these objectives he may find it desirable and essential to secure active membership in the various civic and social organizations which operate in the neighborhood of his school and to accept speaking engagements which give him an opportunity to inform his listeners about the schools, their objectives and their work, to create desirable attitudes toward the school, and to solicit needed coöperation. It is also essential that the principal coördinate the efforts of his teaching staff so that all may coöperate in a unified, well planned, and well directed program of public relations.

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²¹ *The Principal and His Community*, op. cit., p. 155.

hensive treatises of the community relationships of the elementary school principals. The volume abounds in illustrations of practices in selected schools.

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CHAPTER XIV

EFFECTIVE OFFICE ADMINISTRATION

The administrative office bears a strategic relationship to the entire school and its activities. The principal's office may be said to be the heart around which and through which the life of the school operates. It is through the principal as a line officer that a school makes its contacts with the superintendent and the central administration. Through reports, bulletins, visits, and interviews the central administrative staff obtains the information necessary for guidance in formulating city policies which in turn are administered through the principals and supervisors in the local schools. Hence, teachers look toward the principal as the executive intermediary, or line officer in authority in their building, and look upon the principal's office as the headquarters through which they make contact with city administrative and educational policies.

Since the elementary-school principal does have this peculiar and significant relationship to the school and all of its activities, he has a vast number of duties and responsibilities, many of which are discharged, either directly within or at least through, the office headquarters. All aspects of the administration of teacher personnel, as applied in local units, center around the administrative office; likewise pupil personnel, including such major items as classification, promotion, adjustment, attendance, and transfer. The whole question of the administration of instruction involves duties and record keeping which can usually be handled best through the principal's office. Contacts with the general community, the parent-teacher association, mothers' clubs, and inquiring parents create administrative and clerical detail for which the office must provide.

THE NEED FOR ADEQUATE OFFICE SPACE AND ARRANGEMENT

In view of the key position which the principal holds with reference to his school and the large number of duties and responsibilities which have been delegated to him, it is quite essential that quarters be provided which are adequate in size and permit proper arrangement of equipment and proper organization for work. It is only within the last fifteen years that the architectural plans for elementary schools have provided more consistently for office space, and it is even more recently that the amount of space and the internal arrangement of the office have been planned in terms of sound administrative principles and the functions to be discharged through the office.¹ It is not surprising, therefore, that surveys reveal (Table LXXVII) that the offices in some elementary schools

TABLE LXXVII

PURPOSE FOR WHICH THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE IS USED *

Purposes	Frequency of Mention
1. Waiting-room	420
2. Storage- and supply-room. . .	281
3. P. T. A. committee room . . .	205
4. Library.	204
5. Medical room.....	180
6. Restroom.....	102
7. Conference room.....	101
8. General administration... .	73
9. Telephone.....	18
10. Teachers' meetings.	16
11. Class recitations.....	5
12. Lunch.....	3

* From *The Elementary School Principals*, *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association (Washington, D. C., 1928), p. 269.

¹ W. C. Reavis and others, *The Elementary School* (University of Chicago Press, 1931), pp. 76-83.

are needed for activities which obviously interfere with the proper execution of important administrative functions. Office management has a significant bearing upon the degree to which a principal may discharge the more important functions of his position. If the space, equipment, and internal arrangement of the office are inadequate a principal may find it impossible to organize the work so that he may be freed from clerical details and may devote more of his time to important responsibilities which are being delegated to him in increasing number. A study of 279 diaries kept by forty principals for a school day from eight to three o'clock showed that 24.2 per cent of the time of principals was used in constructive organization, 30.1 per cent for routine work, 24.4 per cent for the improvement of learning, 19.3 per cent for imperative temporary or emergency problems, and 2.0 per cent for social training and welfare.² No doubt these data on time distribution are influenced by diaries from some principals who are working under unfavorable conditions. Well ordered administration by competent principals working in well managed offices might reveal a quite different picture of how principals use their time.

The office of the principal is definitely a functional unit within the school. The location, space allotment, equipment, and internal organization of the office should be such as to facilitate, rather than to hinder, the principal in performing his major duties as they relate to the organization of the school. Studies have shown that from 60 to 70 per cent of the principal's duties may be performed in the school office.³ It may be said, therefore, that the office is the workroom for the principal. It should provide a quiet place wherein the head of the school may give concentrated thought to the problems which arise in the process of organizing and administering an

² W. G. Klapp, "The Elementary School Principal and His Job," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 79 (November, 1929), pp. 57-59, 134.

³ *The Elementary School Principalship*, op. cit., Ch. v.

instructional program which is in accordance with modern educational theory. In previous chapters attention has been called to the function of organization as the latter pertains to various aspects of the school program. It may be stated here that the function of organization with reference to the principal's office is to enable this unit in the school to exercise its most helpful relationship to the entire program of the school. A few moments' thought will enable the reader to list a large number of specific ways in which the office functions in close coöperation with different phases of the school program, such as health education, pupil government, library service, classroom instruction, extracurricular activities, child accounting, teacher personnel, and public relations.

SAMPLE OFFICE PLANS

It is not feasible to give detailed constructive criticism as to how office administration may be improved in all types of current situations. In view of the fact that well planned offices are comparatively recent features of the building designs of elementary schools, many principals must operate in improvised or small offices in older buildings, offices which were not designed to accommodate the numerous duties which, under present conditions, must be discharged through the administrative suite. The difficulty of remodeling old structures frequently makes it necessary for principals to effect the best organization possible under the circumstances. In an effort to devise effective office administration, each principal will meet a variety of problems which are peculiar to his school. In an endeavor to solve these problems in the most satisfactory way possible, helpful suggestions and guidance may be obtained from the standard office plans and administrative principles which have been developed in cities in which considerable thought and study have been given to the problem. In most cities the standard office plans have been developed coöperatively between architectural and educational experts. A few

of the standard office plans are given in the hope that they will be suggestive. None of them should be accepted as ideal or "the last word" in office arrangement. Office administration will need to undergo change as it responds to changes in the educational program and the organization of the schools.

Figure 26 shows the Denver standard office for elementary schools. The combination of clinic and office unit has proven highly satisfactorily in the Denver schools. Other advantages

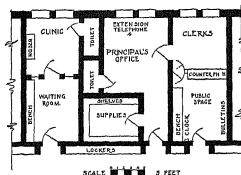


FIG. 26. DENVER STANDARD OFFICE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Seventh Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 280.

of the plan are: the private conference office for the principal, the exit from the principal's office, the counter arrangement for the outer office, and the convenience of the clinic for first-aid cases. A disadvantage which may be noted is that the supply-room cannot be reached except

through the principal's private office. This undesirable feature might be eliminated by providing a corridor door into the storage space or by moving the supply-room next to the public office with an entrance into the supply-room from the outer office.

The Fresno standard office (Fig. 27) is designed primarily for schools enrolling from five hundred to one thousand pupils. The plan provides a compact and convenient arrangement, a private office for the principal, a counter arrangement for the clerk, and the convenient location of the medical room. Other unique features are the teachers' mail and supply boxes which can be filled by the clerk from the supply-room, the supply-receiving room, and the omission of the toilet from the office suite.

The standard elementary school office for Chicago (Fig. 28) has many features in common with those previously presented.

In a survey in which replies were received from 614 principals, a committee of the Department of Elementary Principals summarized what appeared to be unique features of standard office plans.⁴

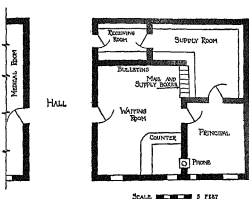


FIG. 27. FRESNO STANDARD OFFICE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Seventh Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 281.

Their summary is as follows:

1. The use of clear glass in office partitions has three advantages, (a) a better diffusion of light through the whole office area, (b) the improved supervision of the office by the clerk, and (c) the elimination of causes for criticism and idle gossip of private conferences.

2. The location of the clinic near the offices gives the principal immediate supervision over emergency cases, while eliminat-

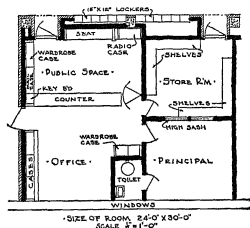


FIG. 28. CHICAGO STANDARD OFFICE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Courtesy of Don C. Rogers, Director of Research and Building Survey, Chicago Public Schools.

⁴ *The Elementary School Principalship, op. cit., p. 282.*

ing such work from the office. Most principals find that the inspection of children after accidents not only insures the proper care, but protects the school from charges of negligence.

3. The bulletin board in the waiting-rooms serves to keep the public informed as well as to convey directions to teachers and pupils. During the field work the investigator was struck by the practical value of the bulletin board in transmitting information to visitors and school.

4. The mail and supply-box arrangement for teachers has proved particularly convenient. This consists of boxes approximately ten inches high, twelve inches wide, and fifteen inches deep with locked doors on the waiting-room side. The teacher carries a key to the box on the same ring with her room keys. Mail, supplies, and notices are placed in the boxes by the clerk from the supply-room side.

5. The supply-receiving room is designed to save the time of the principal, the clerk, and the school delivery men. When the school truck arrives with books or supplies the delivery men place them in the receiving room where they may be checked by the clerk at her convenience. The outside doors of the receiving rooms of all schools are keyed to the same master key which is carried by the delivery clerk. This arrangement makes it unnecessary for the principal or clerk to open doors and take time away from other work.

6. Observation has shown many arrangements of the toilet facilities of principals' offices to be such as to render them useless during the busy hours of the day. Unless a double room arrangement is planned, it would be best for the toilet to be omitted and a lavatory only provided. In schools where this is done, facilities for men and women teachers are located near the office. These extra toilet rooms provide for school visitors in a convenient manner.

ESSENTIALS OF THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE

The committee that made the study of principals' offices and standard office plans prepared a formulation of the essentials of the principal's office.⁵ It is quoted here in the hope that it will be suggestive and helpful to principals in analyzing their own situations.

1. *Location of the office.* It should be easily accessible to the main entrance while conveniently placed for the administration of the school. The first floor is recommended for the majority of schools.

⁵ *The Elementary School Principalship, op. cit.*, pp. 283-284.

2. *Rooms of the office.* No elementary school should be provided with an office of less than two rooms. One room should be large enough for the clerk, waiting space and general administrative purposes. The other room should be the principal's private conference room. It is desirable that the supply and book-storage rooms form a part of the administrative unit or be adjacent thereto. The clinic should be immediately available for emergency cases.

3. *Space of the office.* Internal arrangement of the office is more important than total floor area. An area approximating the size of one classroom (23'×33') should prove ample for schools enrolling from five hundred to one thousand pupils. Larger schools would require additional space for assistants, while permanently smaller schools could be cared for with a smaller office area.

4. *Internal arrangement.* The clerk's area should be located so as to control the waiting-room and entrance into the principal's office. The principal's office should provide for uninterrupted conferences. The conference office should be provided with a separate exit. The use of glass doors and panels in the administrative unit is recommended. Supply- and storage-rooms should be available through the clerk's room and not through the principal's office. The supply-room needs a delivery door in addition to the one opening into the administrative unit.

5. *Heating and lighting* The administrative unit should be provided with a separate auxiliary heating system in the clerk's and principal's offices. This would make those rooms comfortable after school and on non-school days.

Windows of sufficient size to admit adequate light and close enough to the floor to permit a view of the street or playground. Adequate artificial fixtures to provide a minimum of ten lumens on the principal's desk.

6. *Equipment.*

(a) Built-in features:

A wardrobe cabinet should be provided in both principal's office and the clerk's office.

A counter or fence arrangement would prove of assistance to the clerk in administering the demands on her office.

Cork bulletin boards for announcements should be provided in the waiting room.

Teachers' boxes are recommended which open through the wall from the supply-room into the waiting-room. These may be filled by the clerk from the supply-room side.

A key cabinet for the room keys.

(b) Furniture and equipment:

A flat-top desk, a letter file, a book case, and several chairs for the conference room.

A typewriter desk, a small table, a vertical letter file, several record files, and chairs for the clerk's office.

Minimum equipment: Typewriter, waste baskets, mimeographing machine, city telephone, program clock, and a slide rule.

Other desirable equipment: A calculating machine and a safe.

OFFICE FILES

Filing equipment and systematic filing procedures add greatly to the efficiency of office administration and relieve

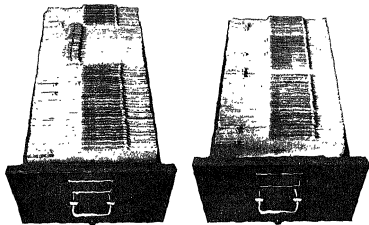


FIG. 29. STANDARD FILE FOR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' OFFICE, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA.

the principal of needless time-consuming clerical details, thus freeing his time for the performance of the more important functions of his position. Inefficient and slovenly practices in filing important documents frequently result in the loss or misplacement of materials which would be significant aids in directing the work of the school. To aid principals in establishing effective and systematic filing procedures, some cities

have developed standard files for elementary-school offices. The first illustration which follows is the general descriptive set-up for Seattle principals. The second description and Figure 29 outline the standard files for elementary principals in Minneapolis. They are presented here for the suggestive values they may have for other principals. Each school system may find it necessary to make certain adaptations to meet local needs.

SEATTLE PRINCIPALS' SELF-KEYED OFFICE FILE⁶

Instructions for Setting Up

The materials for setting up will be supplied by the district. They consist of sixteen (16) metal tab guides and about one hundred (100) individual folders. You will use the folders you now have as far as possible. Also, we are supplying, herewith, three copies of the filing list, one of which is double-spaced and capitalized.

In setting up the file you will use the five metal tab guides having the tabs to the left for the major divisions. Index them with the blue as follows:

BULLETINS (Official)
 CORRESPONDENCE (General)
 RECORDS (Administrative)
 RECORDS (Local)
 CATALOGS AND MISCELLANEOUS PAMPHLETS

Use the remaining eleven (11) metal tab guides for the major divisions. Use capital letters on all index work. Index them with pink as follows:

Reports (duplicates)	Professional
Invoices	Programs and schedules
Requisitions (duplicates)	Pupil records (individual)
Annual inventories and requisitions	School activities
Warehouse sheets	Principal's personal file
Community affairs	

⁶ H. F. Smith (Chairman), "Uniform Files for Elementary School Principals and Teachers," in the *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals (1929), p. 333.

Place these guides in their proper order according to the filing list accompanying this letter. Following each, place the number of folders necessary to give each item on the list an individual folder. Provide a folder for each item regardless of whether you have material for it or not. Now from the double-space filing list cut the individual folder titles as under BULLETINS (Official); you will cut ARITHMETIC, ACTIVITIES, ARTS (Fine and Industrial), and all of the others into individual labels; cut all index slips exactly the same size, pasting them on the folder indicators, in their proper order as alphabetically arranged. Follow this procedure until all folders have been properly indexed.

Now, from one of the inclosed single-spaced filing lists you will cut each major section complete, pasting each on its respective major guide. From the other inclosed single-spaced list cut minor sections pasting each of these upon its respective minor guide.

In order that the principal's desk may be kept free from unorganized and unfinished work the committee has provided three individual folders, marked as follows:

- (1) Unfinished Work I (Immediate)
- (2) Unfinished Work II (Deferred)
- (3) Finished Work III (To be filed)

These folders are to be kept at the front of the first major guide except when in use by the principal.

The Filing List

At the right-hand side of this list has been indicated the period of time which the committee has decided the various items should be kept on file.

STANDARD FILE FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE, MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS [†]

Outline of Contents

Note: Titles of guides in the first position (the extreme left of the file) are given in capital letters. Titles of guides in the second position are underlined. The remaining titles are those found on the folders in the various subdivisions of the file.

[†] Board of Education, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1929.

BLANK FORMS

Accident to City Employees
 Behavior Chart and Instruction Sheet
 Building Directory
 Class Absence Summary—
 Daily
 Community Use of Schools—
 Calendar
 Community Use of Schools—
 Register
 Distribution of Attendance
 Elementary School Questionnaire
 Enrollment and Promotion
 Finishing and Assigned Pupils
 List
 History of Retarded Pupil
 Music Progress Record
 Principal's Annual and Semester Report
 Principal's Monthly Report
 Principal's Supplementary Report
 Reclassification
 Room Classification
 School Classification — Elementary
 Special Recommendation —
 Teachers
 Substitutes' Register
 Summer Withdrawal List —
 Tentative
 Underage Pupil—Recommendation

BULLETINS: ADMINISTRATIVE

School Bulletins: Current Year
 School Bulletins: Previous Year
 To Principal
 To Clerk

CORRESPONDENCE

Departmental

Assistant Supt: Grades
 Kgn.-6
 Assistant Supt.: Grades 7-12
 Assistant to the Superintendent
 Business Superintendent
 Director of Attendance
 Repair Shop and Supply House
 Supervisors
 Superintendent

General

A-Z, inclusive

EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Arithmetic
 Art
 Citizenship
 General Science
 Grammar
 Handwriting
 Health Education
 Language
 Literature
 Music
 Physical Education
 Reading—Recreational
 Reading—Work
 Social Studies
 Spelling

INVENTORIES

Book
 Paint and Ring
 Scissors

ITINERARIES

Supervisors

554 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

REPORTS

Accidents to Employees
 Age-grade Study
 Annual and Semester Reports
 Case Reports—Special Class
 Classifications
 Dental Reports
 Financial Reports
 Finishing and Assigned Pupils' Lists
 Hearing and Vision Tests
 Janitorial Employees
 Misuse of School Property
 Monthly Reports
 Non-Resident Pupils
 Objectors to Physical Examination
 Psychological Test Reports—Special Class
 Speech—Special Class
 Sight-Saving and Braille—Special Class
 Special Recommendations—Teachers
 Standing—Finished and Assigned Pupils
 Substitutes' Registers
 Summer-School Registration and Reports
 Teachers' Attendance Sheets
 Teachers' Pay Rolls

REQUISITIONS: FILLED

No folders

REQUISITIONS: UNFILLED

No folders

RULES AND REGULATIONS

Accidents to Employees
 Charter Rules
 Community Use of Schools
 Fire Drill

Health Supervision
 Housekeeping
 Janitors and Engineers
 Substitutes
 Traffic

TESTS AND GRAPHS

Forms and Directions

Achievement
 Arithmetic
 Diagnostic
 Geography
 Handwriting
 Home Economics
 Intelligence
 Reading
 Spelling

Results

Achievement
 Arithmetic
 Diagnostic
 Geography
 Handwriting
 Home Economics
 Intelligence
 Reading
 Spelling

TEXTBOOKS

Allotment
 Supplementary Texts—Circulation
 Record Keeping—Instructions

GENERAL

Directory of Building
 Parents and Teachers Association
 Programs
 Receipts and Bills
 Bank Statements
 School Savings
 Visual Education

PERSONNEL RECORDS

Technically one may not be justified in making a distinction between office files and their use and the effective management of personnel records. Obviously personnel records, to be most valuable and helpful in the administration of instruction, must be systematically filed and must contain accurate, up-to-date facts about pupils, teachers, and other employees of the school. Again it may be stated that the time and energy devoted to record keeping must be justified largely on the basis of the degree to which the records serve a useful purpose in the improvement of the educational services. As scientific procedures in education become more commonly applied in public-school practice, the need for and the value of records, particularly pupil-personnel records, will increase. In the past school records have not served as useful a purpose in schools as they should. Perhaps one of the major reasons why much valuable data have remained unused in dusty files is because school administrators have not devised an effective means by which the accumulated data may readily be made available to the persons whose educational procedures should be influenced by the recorded facts. The organization for the administration of records has been ineffective. In a preceding chapter attention was called to the lack of coordination between the three major aspects of the health program. In many schools health instruction and physical education proceed quite oblivious of the data gathered by the health-service department. The shortcomings of the program for health may be partially attributed to the ineffective administration of school records. Many schools even to-day administer scores of mental and achievement tests to their pupils, but the test results and frequently the test papers are filed in the principal's office and no attempt is made to interpret the test results to teachers and to point out to teachers how such data may guide them in adjusting classroom instruction to individual differences among pupils. One may question the wisdom of

spending school funds on a testing program if the results of the tests are merely filed in the office.

The principal thus faces at least two important problems with reference to personnel records. One of them is to decide what data and what record forms are most significant and most useful in carrying out an effective, modern educational program. The second task is to devise machinery whereby such records as are kept are accessible to the teaching and administrative staff so that maximum value may be obtained from the recorded data.

In the past there seems to have been little agreement among school people regarding the items of information which should be preserved on school records. Neither is there much uniformity in the number, size, and type of records kept. An examination of 133 cumulative record cards by Heck revealed thirty-one different sizes.⁸ A similar analysis of eighty-two school registers revealed sixty-five different sizes. A study of record forms from 131 cities showed 1,515 different items, 50.2 per cent of which occurred only once and only 11.3 per cent occurred upon more than ten forms.⁹ In view of the tremendous variability of data on record forms, Heck prepared a *Universal List* of items which should appear on the records of every school system. The items in the *Universal List* represent the judgment of 133 competent judges. The items of the composite list were rated "1," "2," or "3" by each judge. The rating "1" indicates that the item should by all means appear in the *Universal List*; "2" indicates that it would be useful in some localities; and "3" indicates that it should never be recorded. Each item which was given a rating of "1" by sixty-two judges was placed in the list. Seventy-six items were selected in this way (Table LXXVIII).

Each school system may desire to develop its own system of personnel records to fit local needs. A number of well

⁸ A. O. Heck, *A Study of Child-Accounting Records*, Bureau of Educational Research Monograph No. 2 (Ohio State University, 1925), p. 90.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 117.

TABLE LXXVIII

UNIVERSAL LIST OF ITEMS FOR SCHOOL RECORDS *

Names of Items	Names of Items
A. PERSONAL HISTORY	2. Credit received and not received
1. Pupil	a. Received during year or semester.
a. Name	c. Total received for high-school course
b. Sex	3. Graduation or promotion
c. Race	a. Date of graduation or promotion
2. Birth of pupil	b. Name of school
a. Date	4. Standardized tests
b. Place	a. Name of tests
3. Age of pupil	c. Test scores
a. Age without definition	d. Class score
b. Age as of September 1	e. Standard score
4. Address of pupil	f. Date given
a. Present address	g. I. Q.
c. Telephone number at present	h. M. A.
B. PERSONAL FAMILY HISTORY AND HOME LIFE	L. MEDICAL HISTORY
1. Parents or guardian	1. Diseases child has had
a. Name	b. Diphtheria
b. Residence	c. Scarlet fever
c. Residence telephone	d. Smallpox
d. Occupation	e. Tuberculosis
G. SCHOOL HISTORY	M. MEDICAL EXAMINATION
1. Admission	1. General considerations
a. First entered school where	a. Date of examination
b. Date entered as beginner	b. Signature of examiner
2. School previously attended	c. Physical defects
a. Name	d. Date of vaccination
b. Grade	2. Items considered in the examination
3. Left school	a. Adenoids
a. Date	b. Ears
b. Cause	c. Eyes
i. Destination	d. Heart
5. Transfers	e. Lungs
a. Date	f. Nervous condition
b. To what school	g. Teeth
6. Progress	h. Tuberculosis
a. Show grade year by year	4. Measurements taken
H. SCHOOL DATA	a. Height of pupil
1. General	b. Weight of pupil
a. Name of school	N. ATTENDANCE RECORD
b. Date of entering	1. Absence
c. Grade child is in	a. Number of times
d. Name of teacher	b. Cause
e. Date of school term	c. Number of tardinesses
f. Subject taken	d. Absence unexcused
g. Name of course	2. Attendance
3. Length of term	a. Daily record of attendance
a. Number of days	b. Days present
c. Actual number days taught	3. Enrollment
4. Administrative	a. Total number in grade
a. Date record made out	b. Total enrollment
J. SCHOOL ACCOMPLISHMENTS	4. General questions
1. Ratings	a. List of children in district according to census
b. Scholarship	
c. Conduct or deportment	
d. Effort	
M. Health	

* From A. O. Heck, *Administration of Pupil Personnel* (Ginn and Co., 1929), p. 234.

planned record systems are available in published form and may be adopted in whole or in part.¹⁰ Whether a series is developed locally or whether a published series is adopted, those in authority should be well versed in the criteria on the basis of which one may judge the value of record forms. Any good record system should be cumulative, compact, and should as far as possible, reduce the repetition of items. The forms should be durable; the cumulative permanent record should eliminate the fine details. There should be a definite relationship between the forms of the system so that one helps to keep the others up-to-date, the data should be readily available to the teacher; the system should make record keeping easy; it should guard against the loss of data; the system should make the preparation of reports as easy and as automatic as possible; it should also make it possible to locate children quickly and to trace children with ease over a period of years; it should provide a list of the pupils who entered a given grade in a given year; and the system should be simple, consisting of three or four fundamental forms.¹¹

THE MANAGEMENT OF CLERICAL ASSISTANCE

Clerical work constitutes an important problem for the elementary-school principal. The details of office routine, unless alleviated in some fashion, impose an almost insurmountable burden upon the principal, and unless systematic management of clerical work is developed the principal soon loses himself in a barrage of office routine. Investigations of how elementary principals spend their time (Table LXXIX) have

¹⁰ A. O. Heck and W. G. Reeder, *The Uniform School-Accounting System* (Public School Publishing Co., 1929).

Engelhardt-Melby Complete School-Record System, Minneapolis, Educational Test Bureau.

Flynn-Utne Simplified Record System, Minneapolis, Educational Test Bureau.

Ayer, Articulated Child Accounting Series, Austin, Texas: Von Boeckmann-Jones Co.

¹¹ Criteria are summarized from A. O. Heck, *op. cit.*, Ch. xi.

TABLE LXXIX

ACTUAL DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPAL'S SCHOOL DAY AS REPORTED IN SEVERAL STUDIES *

	Super- vision	Adminis- tration	Clerical	Teaching	Other Duties	Total
Seventh Yearbook Committee	33 94	30 02	18 04	4 18	13 45	100 5
Crouch	34.1	33 8	13.5	8 7	9.9	100
Bates	36	51	10	0	3	100
Benson	34	40	12 5	0	6 5	93
Kuehny	24.4	43 6	31 1	0	1.9	101
Martin	19 5	39 3	6.1	22 9	12.2	100
Morrison	15	16	12	52	6	100
Flowers (Baltimore)	29 8	41.1	20 6	3.3	5.2	100
Flowers (other cities)	30	44 8	16	1.7	7.5	100
English	26 1	43.6	10 2	9.7	10 4	100
Hampton	20 08	65 36	8 02	3.94	2 00	100
Per cent of time principals would give under ideal conditions	51.24	25.04	5.89	5.73	11.76	99.66

* *The Elementary School Principalship, op. cit.*, pp. 200-207.

shown repeatedly that administrative and clerical details consume time and energy far out of proportion to their importance among the functions of the principal. As a group, principals themselves are aware of the disproportionate amount of time spent upon routine matters (Table LXXIX) and should like to devote more of their time to the more important duties of their position.

The fact that only about 50 per cent of elementary schools are supplied with clerks makes it all the more important that the principal systematize office routine.¹² Wherever clerks and assistants are provided, these helpers should be considered as aids to the principal and do not relieve him of the responsibility for their work. In fact, in a certain sense, increased assistance in a school increases the principal's responsibility

¹²Eunice P. McGill, "A Study of Clerical Help for Elementary School Principals," in the *Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1927), Ch. x.

as he must now function through these helpers and he has the duty of directing and coördinating their work. Managerial ability of a high type is required if the clerical staff is to render the most efficient service.

Just as the principal in the small school has to make an analysis of his job and distribute his time and energy to meet the various responsibilities most effectively, so in a large school the principal must make an analysis of all the work to be done and then determine how these responsibilities can be allocated to the various assistants. The distribution of duties to assistants is not merely a problem in mathematics of determining the sum total of work to be done and then dividing that by the number of assistants.¹⁸ To obtain the most efficient performance of duties the distribution of responsibilities must be made in terms of the types of work each of the assistants is best fitted to perform, taking into account training, experience, and temperament. Also, the work for each assistant must be planned so the least amount of time will be wasted by him, and so his work is properly coördinated with that of other clerks in order to avoid unnecessary repetition of service and undesirable conflict of authority and responsibility.

To assist in obtaining maximum service from clerical assistants, some principals have found serviceable a definite schedule of assigned responsibilities (Table LXXX) for each secretary. Careful job analyses have shown that certain duties are periodic and can be performed best if done consistently by the same person. A time schedule similar to the one shown in Table LXXXI is useful. A wall chart, such as shown in Figure 30, represents a unique plan which assures the performance of periodic activities. Additional efficiency in handling office work has been obtained by preparing for teachers an information book consisting of some thirty or more answers to questions which new as well as old teachers ask of the principal and

¹⁸ G. D. Taylor, "The Administrative Assistants, Organizing the Work of the Office," in the *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals (1930), Ch. v.

TABLE LXXX

ASSIGNED DUTIES OF EACH SCHOOL SECRETARY *

Record Clerk	Secretary	Book Custodian	Mimeograph Clerk
Reports — State	Dictation	Information desk	Mimeographing
Financial records	Transcribing	Meeting callers	Office plants
Cafeteria	Typing	(Pupils)	Teachers' materials
Resells	Filing	Answering phone	Reading
Specials	Storehouse orders compiled	(Teachers, pupils)	Plays
Reports — Daily attendance	Making appointments	Issuing supplies	Seat work
Monthly attendance †	Meeting callers of principal	Issuing test materials	Tests
Kardex file	Answering phone	Issuing passes	Bulletins
Record grades †	Outgoing mail	Charge of State adopted books	Reports
Summary grade sheets †	School announcements	Temporary enrollment of pupils	Storehouse orders issued
Direct messengers	Calling substitute teachers	Lost and found articles	Distributing mail
	Report at teachers' meetings		Issuing passes
	Principal's daily situation report †		Temporary enrollment of pupils
	Principal's monthly situation report †		Permanent records †
	Principal's yearly situation report †		Good Spirit Banner †
	Time sheets †		
	Requisitions †		
	Inventories †		

* *Ninth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 247.

† Periodical duties.

TABLE LXXXI

ASSIGNED HOURS FOR DAILY DUTIES *

Hours	Record Clerk	Secretary	Book Custodian	Mimeograph Clerk
8:00	Reports	Announcements	Pupil enrollment	Pupil enrollment
9:00		Dictation	Pupil readmittance	Stencil cutting
9:30	A. M. absences			
10:00		Typing		
10:30	A. M. absences	Outgoing mail	Issuing supplies	
11:00	Reporting absences to principal			
11:15		Lunch	Issuing passes	Lunch
12:15	Lunch	Typing	Lunch	Issuing passes
1:15	Cheeking cafeteria money		Typing for teachers	Running mimeograph
1:30	P. M. absences			
2:00	Posting			
2:30		Outgoing mail		
3:00		Filing	Book accounting	
4:00		Dictation	Information desk	

* *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 248.

members of the office staff.¹⁴ In addition to explaining the policies of the school regarding principal visitation, use of equipment, fire drill, pupil conduct, substitute teachers, school library, pupil helpers, and examples of all school forms and blanks properly made out with explanations, this booklet contains a chart showing the assigned duties of each secretary so that teachers might go directly to the secretary in charge.

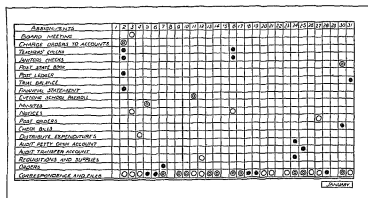


FIG. 30. BULLETIN-BOARD PLAN OF ASSIGNING DUTIES.

Each symbol of this plan represents a different clerk. Plan devised by Superintendent F. P. Reagle of Montclair, N. J.

MANAGEMENT OF TEXTBOOKS AND SUPPLIES

In the majority of school systems, at least the larger ones, instructional materials such as textbooks, library books, maps, globes, paper of all kinds, and other work materials are selected from the list approved by the board of education and are secured from the central storehouse by requisition by the principal. Although, as members of various committees, the principal and teachers may have very definite and direct responsibilities regarding the preparation and revision of standardized stock supply lists, the attention of the reader is

¹⁴ A. N. Donner, "The School Clerk," in the *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals (1930), p. 246.

directed here only to the problems associated with the administration of textbooks and supplies within a single school. Usually each school building has some stockroom or storage space available in which books and supplies may be housed temporarily and from which these instructional materials may be circulated as needed.

The books used in carrying on the work of a school may be divided into three classes, (1) the textbooks used in the classroom which the pupil either owns or has in his possession as a loan from the school; (2) the supplementary, reference, and collateral reading materials and the professional library; and (3) the general community library, at least such phases of it as may come under the jurisdiction of the school. The latter two types of instructional material have been treated in the chapter on the administration of library service. Hence the discussion here need emphasize only the textbook management.

Textbooks are usually purchased by the school system on the basis of annual requisition. They are distributed to local schools according to the standards for use adopted by the board of education. In some cases specific titles and the per-pupil quota are specified while in other cities books may be chosen from the approved list on a per-pupil cost basis. The principal of each building must decide on the basis of budgeted funds and local needs which books are to be made available for each classroom and each group of children. When the books are received they should be assembled in a central bookroom. If the general storeroom which is a part of the office suite is large enough, this may be used. A complete textbook record for each text will be maintained in the principal's office. As books are distributed to teachers the office keeps a complete record of each teacher's account with the bookroom. The teacher proceeds to distribute the textbooks to her class and is held accountable for the books loaned to her pupils. Each pupil may sign for the books received, a duplicated copy of the receipted form being sent to the parent. The original

forms signed by the pupil may be filed in the office by grade. New and transferred pupils may receive their books or clear their record directly through the office. At the close of the year the pupil records are given to the teacher to be checked. Adequate adjustments must be made for defacement, loss, or destruction by individual pupils. The books are then returned to the storeroom where they are inspected and inventoried, and the teacher's accounting with the office is balanced.¹⁵ Arrangements are then made for the repair of those books which can be repaired for extended use while replacements are made for those that are worn beyond repair. The essential feature of the plan described above is that it provides a continuous and accurate inventory of textbooks which is essential for annual-report purposes and for accurate and economical financial administration.

Instructional and janitorial supplies are usually obtained from the central storehouse by requisition of articles from the standardized stock-supply list and are delivered periodically to the schools.¹⁶ It is considered the best policy to have all requisitions for supplies prepared by the principal rather than to have various groups of school employees send their own requisitions direct to the central storehouse. Within each building the supplies should be received and accounted for in the general storeroom. They are then distributed to teachers on the basis of such standards for use as have been adopted by the school system and as requested by teachers on special "teacher requisition forms." It is desirable to have classrooms operate on a monthly or bi-weekly supply basis. Requisitions can thus be received at the principal's office at regular inter-

¹⁵ For a job analysis of the duties associated with the management of textbooks, see G. Howard, *Free Textbooks in Public Schools* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924).

¹⁶ The standardized stock-supply list of the Chicago public schools comprises about 6,500 articles. The list consists largely of supplies, with a small assortment of equipment articles, ranging in price from one cent to \$17.12.

vals and the office clerk can plan her work so that no time will be wasted in filling the teachers' requests. Emergency calls for materials from the storeroom should be minimized as far as possible. The office should maintain an accurate account with each teacher for the materials used. The principal may check classrooms periodically to note the status of classroom supplies. Teachers may also be notified periodically of the amounts used as compared to budgetary allowances to insure an even and equitable distribution of materials. The materials in the storeroom should be arranged to permit efficient distribution and at the same time provide a continuous inventory of stock. In this way new materials may be ordered from the central storehouse to arrive at the school before the old stock is entirely depleted.

The management of the storeroom itself creates many nice problems for the principal. If the office is provided with clerical assistance, the distribution and collection of textbooks and supplies must be planned so that the time of clerical help may be economized and still result in efficient service. If no clerical assistance is available it is essential that storeroom management be organized in a way which will not convert the principal into a clerk to effect seeming economy. Yet it is equally important that an accurate accounting be made of stores at all times. Much waste and inequitable distribution of materials among teachers can result if books and supplies are carelessly handled. The storeroom should provide a continuous, accurate inventory of supplies so that periodic reports to the central office can be made with ease and economy of time. Surpluses in classrooms at the end of the year should be returned to the storeroom and an accurate inventory submitted to the central storehouse.¹⁷

¹⁷ For illustration and analysis of supply-management practices in selected cities, see R. B. Taylor, *Principles of School Supply Management* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926).

CONFERENCES WITH PUPILS, TEACHERS, AND PATRONS

The atmosphere of a well administered office is cordial and makes teachers, pupils, and patrons feel that they are not only welcome but that an open invitation is always extended for them to bring their problems for discussion with the principal. On the other hand, the office should manifest a businesslike atmosphere so that teachers, pupils, and patrons realize that the office is a place of business, a place where people have work to do and have no time for idle gossip or petty details. Unless this sentiment prevails much valuable time is wasted by the principal and the staff, and the routine duties of the office are constantly interrupted.

To assist teachers and others with their problems and to make them feel welcome in the office, and yet to have these conferences dispatched without disrupting office efficiency, principals have found it very helpful to designate certain office hours during which the principal plans to interview patrons and pupils or to hold conferences with teachers. Clerical assistants may be notified of the hours which the principal sets aside for these specific purposes and thus enable them to arrange appointments for those periods. Although emergency situations should always be met at the opportune time, the schedule suggested above will do much to economize the time and energy of the principal and the office help. Usually principals experience difficulties when they first attempt to systematize conference periods, but persistent efforts will be well repaid in the long run. Teachers will learn that their time is saved if they plan to see the principal during the hour that he has scheduled for conferences. Teachers should not be permitted to send pupils to the office indiscriminately at any or all times or to send them without written instructions which give details regarding the nature and the extent of misbehavior and the particular reason why discipline should be administered from the office rather than by herself. Requests for materials and other details which must be handled through

the office can be planned by teachers so that the work of the office may experience a minimum of interruption. Likewise messages and materials which are sent from the office to the classrooms should be planned so as to cause the least amount of interruption of classroom activity. If teachers are requested to visit the office periodically once or twice a day the mail boxes conveniently placed in the outer office may be used for the distribution of bulletins and materials. Also, teachers, pupils, and patrons may be encouraged to present their requests and inquiries to the clerk who has charge of particular duties and thus economize the time of the principal as well as their own.

The reader should not gain the impression from the above statements that the rest of the school exists for the sake of efficient office administration. Basic to all considerations and principles for office administration is the fact that the office exists primarily for the services it can render to the educational activities of the school. There are certain services, however, which can be rendered more economically and more effectively if they are centralized in one place. Some of these have been assembled in and administered through the principal's office. In order that maximum service and economy may result, it is essential that all concerned recognize the relationship of these services to the school program and respect the working conditions of the principal and his office staff. Tremendous inefficiency and waste can result, even in the little things, if sound principles of administration are not recognized.

THE TEACHER AND OFFICE ADMINISTRATION

Few services which touch the work of several individuals or related groups can be rendered effectively unless all concerned assume some responsibilities for the efficient operation of the service. The efficiency of office administration and, at the same time, the amount of helpful service which may be

obtained from the principal's office, depends to a large degree upon the extent to which the teachers in a school are willing or are taught to give their coöperation. In the above paragraphs numerous suggestions have been made for the systematizing of clerical work, record keeping, textbook and supply management, and conferences with the principal. Few of the schemes which the principal may inaugurate to improve the work of his office will be successful unless teachers lend their wholehearted coöperation. The least a teacher can do is to familiarize herself thoroughly with those aspects of office practice which affect her and then do all she can to fulfil her responsibilities in a way that will facilitate the efficiency of office management and of the services rendered by the office. It is essential that both the principal and the teachers recognize the important relationships which teachers have to effective office administration.

THE PRINCIPAL AND OFFICE ADMINISTRATION

The extent to which the preceding discussion has emphasized the important relationships between the principal's office and the general functioning of the school and the importance of efficient and systematized office administration would hardly make it necessary to enter upon an extended discussion of the principal's relationship to office administration. It is generally recognized that the principal must assume immediate and direct responsibility for the management of his office and the services which are discharged through it. Frequently the competence of the principal can be sensed by the manner in which the office is run. Yet it must be remembered that office organization should not be made an end in itself. It is only the means to the operation of an efficient school. Procedures are systematized and routine acts are delegated to assistants in order that the principal may find time for the more important responsibilities of his position and in order that he may increase his worth to the school.

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CHAPTER XV

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PLANT

It may seem a mere platitude to state that the school plant represents the physical structure in which and through which society's agents discharge the most important and perhaps the most sacred of functions of organized society. Yet it is with this thought in mind that one observes with critical interest the many school-houses, both fine and otherwise, which are found throughout our country. Natural queries might be: What is the place and function of the school plant in the whole program for public education? What are the distinct contributions of the school plant toward the attainment of educational objectives? In what ways may the school plant, through proper construction, equipment, and administration, facilitate the work of public education? The authors of a recent book have stated that

In the development of the elementary-school plant it is necessary first to determine the nature and function of the building and to consider carefully the factors that determine its type and character. All school buildings must be conceived of as factors in facilitating the instruction of the child and in satisfying adult community needs. The physical plant is a major agency in carrying on the instructional process, and it receives its stimulus from educational objectives and the methods for satisfying them. The function of a public-school building is to develop in permanent form the best architectural expression of the curricular needs at the time of construction and to stand as an inspiration, both to the child and to the community, of the ideals of public education.¹

¹ C. L. Spain, A. B. Moehlman, and F. W. Frostic, *The Public Elementary School Plant* (Rand McNally and Co., 1930), p. 3.

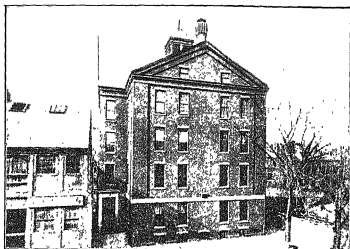


FIG. 31. QUINCY GRAMMAR SCHOOL, BOSTON, 1848.

From C. L. Spain, *The Platoon School* (The Macmillan Co., 1924),
p. 123. Reproduced by permission of the publisher

This clear statement of the functional aspects of the school plant points to the direct relationship between the school building and the curricular and administrative needs. The implication is clear that the school plant is a factor of major importance in considering the educational program of a city or a local unit within the city.

THE RELATION OF SCHOOL PLANT TO THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

The significant relationship between the character of school buildings and the educational organization to be effected has been demonstrated many times in the history of American education. Just prior to the time that the first graded school² (Fig. 31) was organized in this country the Lancastrian system of instruction with its large single room

² The Quincy Grammar School of Boston, organized in 1848 by J. D. Philbrick.

seating from two hundred to a thousand pupils had been adopted extensively, especially in the Middle Atlantic and Southern states.³ In the New England states the most common type of organization was the "departmental school" which provided one large hall seating about 180 pupils and one or more small recitation rooms on each side of the large hall.⁴ Both of these forms of organization demanded rooms which at the present time would be considered unusually large. Consequently, as the advantages of the graded system with its smaller classrooms and a single teacher for each age-group were recognized, the new plan of organization could be adopted conveniently only as new buildings were constructed or the large halls of the departmental schools were partitioned so as to form a number of smaller classrooms. The difficulty of adjusting the old buildings to the new organization prevented many cities from effecting the graded system as a city-wide practice. It was only as the old buildings were remodeled or new buildings erected that the complete reorganization of the elementary schools of a district could be brought about.

Although such a striking illustration of the important relationship between the school plant and the educational organization may be difficult to find in more recent educational history, especially on an almost national scale, there are many cities which are experiencing problems fully as serious in their endeavors to carry on modern educational programs in buildings ill adapted to present needs. In the transition from the eight-year school to the newer organization which culminates elementary education at the end of the sixth grade many cities have found it necessary to make the change in piece-meal fashion, frequently resorting to all kinds of make-shift arrangements because building facilities would not permit a complete, thoroughgoing reorganization. Scores of cities may

³ E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919), p. 223.

⁴ W. H. Small, *Early New England Schools* (Ginn and Co., 1914), p. 280.

be found in which the educational policy of the board of education calls for the inclusion of Grades 7 and 8 in the broader and enriched program of secondary education but the policy has not been executed in many sections of the city because the cost of remodeling old structures to house the new program seemed prohibitive.

Closely associated with the above problem is the question of number and location of school buildings, both with reference to each other and to the population to be served. Reference to Tables LXXXII and LXXXIII will show that one may locate cities with seven or eight elementary-school buildings when the total enrollment to be served does not exceed 1,500 pupils. Although the most desirable size for an elementary-school unit has not been determined, experience seems to have given adequate demonstration of the fact that a desirable type of educational program cannot be administered economically in extremely small units. One may well question the administrative feasibility of housing Grades 1 through 6 in buildings which have a maximum of three classrooms (Table LXXXIII). The extent to which the different groups of grades are housed in separate buildings suggests that the assignment of pupils to given buildings is the result of expediency rather than the result of a study of plant facilities and the educational organization to be effected. The situation just described also suggests the problems which may arise in articulating and unifying the program for elementary education.

Administrative policies regarding the classification and progress of pupils are frequently conditioned by the location and size of buildings. A school which is favored with the opportunity of housing children from the kindergarten through the third grade or from Grades 4 through 6 in an eight- or ten-room building is in a better position to classify pupils into groups which represent the most desirable instructional situations than is a school in which children from the kindergarten through Grade 6 must be allocated to three or four classrooms. The opportunities for pupil adjustment and the adaptation

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TABLE LXXXII

THE NUMBER AND SIZE OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL BUILDINGS IN FORTY-SIX DISTRICTS WHICH HAVE AN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF 1,000 TO 1,500 — SIX-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 1929 *

CITY	THE NUMBER OF CLASSROOMS PER BUILDING						TOTAL NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BUILDINGS PER CITY
	1-3	4-6	7-12	13-18	19-24	25-More	
1	N	N	N	N	N	N	1
2	2	2
3	1	1	2
4	2	†	2
5	3	3
6	...	3	3
7	2	1	3
8	3	3
9	...	1	2	3
10	2	1	3
11	...	1	1	1	3
12	3	3
13	1	...	2	3
14	1	1	...	2	4
15	1	...	2	1	4
16	1	...	3	4
17	4	4
18	4	4
19	4	4
20	1	...	2	1	4
21	4	4
22	1	...	3	4
23	...	1	2	2	5
24	1	...	4	5
25	1	...	4	5
26	...	5	5
27	...	1	3	...	1	...	5
28	3	...	2	5
29	5	5
30	1	5	6
31	1	...	5	6
32	...	2	1	3	6
33	6	6
34	...	5	1	6
35	2	...	3	1	6
36	1	3	2	6
37	5	1	1	7
38	7	7
39	...	2	5	7
40	2	2	2	...	1	...	7
41	...	4	3	7
42	...	3	4	7
43	3	2	2	7
44	2	1	4	7
45	6	1	1	8
46	5	2	8
Total...	41	42	114	19	2	...	219

* From H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, p. 22.

N = Number of buildings.

† Although this district has five buildings, each of seven to twelve rooms, which house Grades 1 to 8, the general school organization is 0-2-4 with some of the seventh and eighth grades housed in a separate building.

‡ The general school organization is indicated as 6-3-2; Grades 8 and 9 are housed in a separate building; all the seventh grades are distributed among five small buildings, each having four to six rooms, and each housing Grades 1 to 7.

TABLE LXXXIII

THE NUMBER AND SIZE OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND THE GRADES TAUGHT IN THE RESPECTIVE BUILDINGS IN SEVEN SELECTED SCHOOL DISTRICTS WITH AN ENROLLMENT OF 1,000 TO 1,500 — SIX YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 1929 *

City	Enrollment	Number of Buildings	Number of Rooms per Building	Grades Taught in Each Building
A.....	1,040	2	7 to 12	1 to 6
B.....	1,055	1	4 to 6	3 to 4
		1	7 to 12	1 to 3
		1	13 to 18	3 to 6
C.....	1,200	1	1 to 3	1 to 6
		2	7 to 12	1 to 6
		1	13 to 18	1 to 6
D.....	1,003	1	1 to 3	1 to 2
		2	7 to 12	1 to 5
		1	7 to 12	1 to 6
		1	7 to 12	3 to 6
E.....	1,257	2	4 to 6	1 to 2
		1	7 to 12	1 to 6
		3	13 to 18	1 to 6
F.....	1,500	2	1 to 3	1 to 6
		2	4 to 6	1 to 6
		2	7 to 12	1 to 6
		1	19 to 24	1 to 6
G.....	1,350	5	1 to 3	1 to 3
		2	4 to 6	1 to 5
		1	19 to 24	1 to 6

* From H. J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, p. 24.

of instruction to individual differences seem much more favorable in the former situation.

The organization for the administration of the educational program must also be shaped in terms of the nature of the school plant. When general and special supervisors work in a building which has a full-time teaching principal, their supervisory techniques assume widely different characteristics from those they employ in a school which has a full-time supervisory principal. Staff relationships and staff responsi-

bilities may differ as supervisory officers move from one building to another. Frequently the conditioning factors of the school plant necessitate an organization, especially in local school units, which makes it impossible for individual personalities to demonstrate their real abilities and to render their maximum service to the school system.

Of no less importance than the items to which attention has been called in the above paragraphs, and especially at a time when school expenditures are subjected to critical examination, is the problem of financing the schools. In the construction of buildings, especially when auditoriums and gymnasiums are desired for certain age groups, it would doubtless be cheaper to erect school houses which would serve a larger number of the particular age group for which specialized facilities are needed than to include in each building children from the kindergarten through Grade 6.⁵ If the former plan is followed, each building is likely to be more complete in terms of the facilities demanded by the educational program of each of the age groups. Other aspects of administrative efficiency, such as the proportion of the principal's time devoted to teaching, the amount of clerical help for the principal and teachers, and the cost of janitorial and engineering service, are affected by the size and distribution of school buildings. In other words, the number of buildings, the size of buildings, and the location of buildings with reference to each other and the school population to be served, influence nearly every administrative practice and the entire plan of organization. Obviously, a school system with 1,000 elementary-school pupils housed in one school may develop an entirely different organization than a district with five or six small and widely scattered structures. In fact, a system with one large elementary school and several others of varying size may be forced to apply different administrative practices in each unit.

⁵ Fred Engelhardt, "Determining the Plan of Organization for a Local School System," *School Executives Magazine*, Vol. 50 (October, 1930), pp. 75-76.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND THE SCHOOL PLANT

No doubt the above discussion of the relation between administrative practices and the school plant has raised in the reader's mind a number of ways in which the school plant has a direct relationship to the educational policies of a city. According to the previously stated functions of a public-school plant it is essential that the school buildings of a city be so located, constructed, and equipped that the educational policies of the board of education may be economically and effectively executed. Since the elementary school may be thought of as a seven-year school, serving children from ages five to twelve, inclusive, facilities must be provided to care adequately for the younger children as well as the older ones. This implies the need for the space and equipment essential to the effective application of a modern curriculum for kindergarten and primary pupils. If the educational policy of the school-board specifies the kind of a curriculum which will give expression to the newer theories and objectives of education, it seems imperative that the school plant, equipment, and supplies be such as to permit teaching procedures and allied services which will make possible the attainment of the objectives.⁶

A number of other allied factors may be named to show the relationship between school plant and educational policy. The types of activities carried on in a particular school may be dependent upon the plant facilities. Perhaps the most obvious illustrations are gymnasium, auditorium, playground, and library activities. In some schools increasing recognition is being given to the kinds of activities which can be conducted most effectively in various-sized groups, such as the small committee of three or four pupils, the larger group of ten or twelve, and so on. Unless appropriate rooms are available,

⁶ For an illustration of the newer educational policy adopted by a board of education, see *The Public School Code of Hamtramck*, Board of Education, Hamtramck, Michigan.

these activities for various-sized groups cannot be fully developed, except at a sacrifice of administrative efficiency. The use of the radio and visual aids—particularly moving pictures—is neither convenient nor practicable unless the essential facilities have been incorporated in the building. Adult education on the elementary level will continue for some time to come as a service which the public schools must render. As the kindergarten becomes universally established and as nursery-school education becomes more common, the extent of parental education will increase. It is also likely that elementary schools will grow in importance as community centers around which the social life of the neighborhood will revolve. These and other questions will arise and require definite action by the board of education as a phase of their educational policy. It is not likely that many school-boards will fail to recognize the opportunities for service, and consequently the school plant must be adjusted to meet these various needs. It must be remembered, however, that the school building has no meaning or purpose apart from its service as a facilitating factor in the instructional processes and the broad educational policy of the community. The different ways in which attempts have been made in modern school buildings to give expression to the functions of the school plant will be illustrated in the subsequent paragraphs.

EDUCATIONAL DESIGNING

Educational designing may be defined as "the translation of instructional needs into physical facilities." It is the activity through which the curricular needs and the social needs of both children and community are translated into numbers, sizes, types, and locations of classrooms and other plant features and developed as a complete building-sketch-plan.⁷ The scope of educational designing may be implied from an analysis of the above definition. The first item of major considera-

⁷ C. L. Spain, A. B. Mochlman, and F. W. Frostic, *op. cit.*, p. 97.

tion is the actual building itself. Such items as the extent of the organization, the number of children to be served, the grade distribution, size of class, the type of curriculum and the kinds of activities to be provided for children, the kind of equipment needed to apply the adopted curriculum, the method of school administration, and the requirements for adult education must be analyzed and translated into physical units. These physical units must be organized so that they will be logically related to each other, satisfy the building-orientation need, and insure ease in administration.⁸

Other significant aspects of educational designing are the playground, especially in its relation to the program for health and physical activities, and the beautification of the entire unit, or landscaping. The important bearing which each of the three phases of educational designing have upon the extent to which a school plant can fulfil its functions is readily understood. It may be said, however, that the real significance of this relationship was not fully appreciated until within comparatively recent years. The last decade has witnessed the most sincere and the most thoroughgoing attempts to construct school buildings which fit the school program and which facilitate the execution of the educational program which is seeking expression in modern elementary schools.⁹

CLASSROOMS ADJUSTED TO CURRICULAR NEEDS

A characteristic feature of the newer elementary-school buildings is that classrooms are designed and equipped according to curricular needs. Teachers find it difficult to conduct the varied activities and projects of a modern curriculum in traditional classrooms which consist of but little other than four walls and rows of fixed seats. In some cities the design

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 98.

⁹ H. F. Skodden, "A School-house Planned to Fit the School Program," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 84 (February, 1932), p. 48.

G. D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, *Standards for Elementary School Buildings* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933).

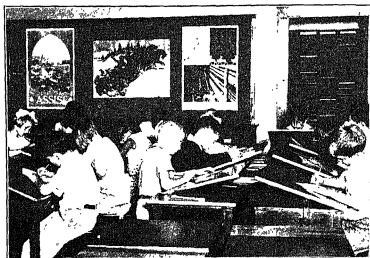


FIG. 32. A SPECIAL ART ROOM. THE SCHOOL IS ORGANIZED ON THE COÖPERATIVE GROUP PLAN.

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Shorewood, Wisconsin.



FIG. 33. A SPECIAL MUSIC ROOM. THE SCHOOL IS ORGANIZED ON THE COÖPERATIVE GROUP PLAN.

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Shorewood, Wisconsin.

of classrooms has been guided by the theory that classrooms can facilitate the instructional process to a maximum degree if special rooms are set aside for subjects which require highly specialized or unusual types or amounts of equipment. Such subjects as art, music, and science (Figs. 32 and 33) are frequently taught in special rooms. Departmental teaching usually accompanies such specialized facilities. Some educators believe, on the other hand, that the most desirable and the most integrated instruction results if the single-teacher plan is used. In the latter case the teacher may accompany her group of pupils to the special room, or each classroom may be equipped as adequately as possible (Fig. 34) so that all the activities, except perhaps gymnasium, playground, and auditorium, of a given class may take place in the one room.

The kinds of equipment which are being placed in the classrooms of the new elementary schools are numerous and

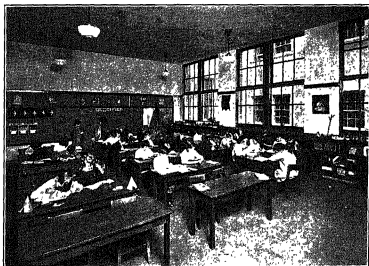


FIG. 34. A WELL EQUIPPED GENERAL CLASSROOM.
Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Albion, Michigan.

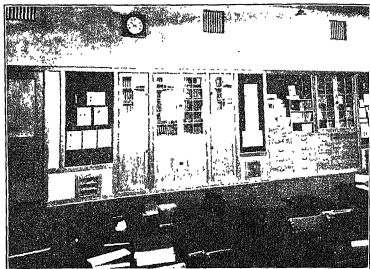


FIG. 35. AN EXAMPLE OF GENERALIZED BUILT-IN EQUIPMENT

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Ypsilanti, Michigan, and Warren J. Holmes Co., Architects, Lansing, Michigan.

varied.¹⁰ The recent development in school architecture which permits the use of the breather walls for heating and ventilating ducts, for hall lockers, built-in bookcases, closets, and cabinets makes available much room equipment and storage space without materially diminishing the floor space. Although practice varies from one school system to another, depending somewhat upon the kind of curriculum and teaching procedures which are expected to function in the classrooms, there are a number of items which are commonly found in the recently constructed buildings. Special cases for essential supplies and room equipment, built-in cabinets (Fig. 35) for

¹⁰ Valerie Watrous, "Los Angeles Goes Modern in School Supplies and Equipment," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 83, (July, 1931), pp. 41-43.

G. L. Hilleboe, "Equipment of the Elementary Classroom," *School Executives Magazine*, Vol. 52 (November, 1932), pp. 116-117.

general textbooks, a small, well selected reference library, and display cabinets for social-science materials are rapidly coming to be common items of room equipment. To this list might be added bulletin boards for the display of pupil products, wall racks in which current literature may be attractively displayed, a sand-table or a display counter, and complete equipment for radio reception.¹¹

Changes in school seating have been no less marked than the changes in the other forms of classroom equipment. The fixed seats are being replaced by movable furniture consisting of either the single arm or desk-chairs which may be arranged in rows or in a circular array, depending upon the nature of the class work, or the table and chairs, each table accommodating several children. A more recent tendency is toward the individual table-desk which insures more individual freedom and greater flexibility in arrangement. Teachers have found that the various types of movable furniture are very satisfactory for classroom procedures which emphasize group work, projects, socialized activities, and provision for individual differences.

Another method which is being used to insure the adjustment of school buildings to present as well as future curricular needs is known as "unit construction." A unit of measurement, generally either ten or fifteen feet, is taken as a constant, and the entire building is developed in terms of this unit or multiples thereof.¹² In this way it is relatively easy to develop classrooms of various sizes or to change the size of classrooms if curricular and administrative needs command such changes. Research studies which are now under way may soon indicate the kinds of activities which can be carried on

¹¹ E. Y. Poore, "Some Essentials of Radio and Public-Address Equipment for Schools," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 83 (July, 1931), pp. 47-48 and 133.

S. M. Brownell, "Shall the Plans for the New School Include Radio Installation?" *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 8 (October, 1931), pp. 53-58.

¹² C. L. Spain, A. B. Moehlman, and F. W. Frostic, *op. cit.*, p. 122.

most effectively in pupil groups of different sizes. It is entirely possible that the present notions of class-size and teaching procedures may be radically modified in the near future so that classes will vary in size throughout the school day, depending upon the kind of activity in which pupils engage. A

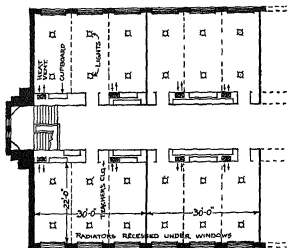


FIG. 36. UNIT CONSTRUCTION. FOUR 30-FOOT ROOMS DESIGNED IN TERMS OF A 10-FOOT UNIT.

Note how complete each unit is with respect to heating, ventilation, and artificial lighting.

pupil may spend a part of the day working as an individual, part of the time he may be a member of a committee of three or more, part of the time he may participate in activities in which the groups number from thirty to fifty, while a part of the time he may be a member of groups of 150 or more. Pupil groups of various sizes are already found extensively in auditorium and gymnasium work. It is likely that the practice may extend to many other kinds of school work, or that activities now unknown will develop. Consequently it is essential that flexibility in physical structure be insured so that

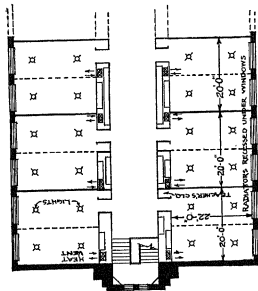


FIG. 37. UNIT CONSTRUCTION.

Six 20-foot rooms evolved from the four 30-foot rooms shown in Figure 36.

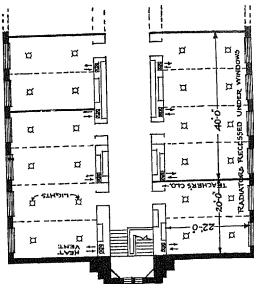


FIG. 38. UNIT CONSTRUCTION.

Two 40-foot and two 20-foot rooms evolved from the four 30-foot rooms shown in Figure 36.

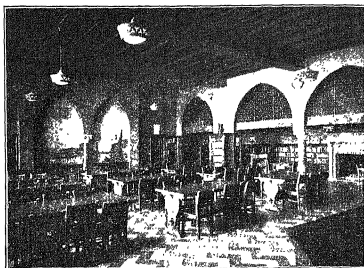


FIG. 39. INTERIOR VIEW OF LIBRARY, NICHOLS INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL, EVANSTON, ILLINOIS.

The ceiling is of concrete, stained a warm Italian brown. Lighting fixtures are standard classroom unit, ornamented with a perforated metal band; the floor is covered with linoleum in a modern zigzag pattern. The chairs and tables are specially designed. Through the colonnade at the east side of library there appears the mural painted by Camoreyt, a French artist. This mural depicts a scene on the grand canal in Venice with the Church of Santa Maria della Salute in the right foreground, in the distance an old palace and galleon and at the left several gondolas. This library, accommodating 150 at tables, adjoins the main entrance, permitting its separation from school for use at night as a branch library.

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Dist. 76, Evanston, Illinois, and Childs and Smith, Architects, Chicago.

classrooms of different sizes may be developed. Figures 36, 37, and 38,¹³ illustrate flexibility in classroom design.

LIBRARIES AND AUDITORIUMS

The increasing importance of the school library as an integrating agency in nearly every aspect of school work has resulted in the development of specially equipped library rooms for elementary schools (Fig. 39). Although the modern

¹³ C. L. Spain and others, *The Elementary School Plant*, p. 113. These figures are used by permission of the authors and publisher.

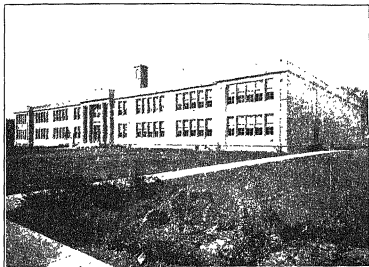


FIG. 40. PARLEY COBURN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, ELMIRA, NEW YORK.

Courtesy of R. T. Bickford, Architect, Elmira, New York.

conception of the elementary-school library dates back to the beginning of the present century,¹⁴ the general practice of incorporating a special library room in the plans for elementary schools has come about within the last fifteen years. Figure 41 shows the location of the library with reference to the classrooms found in the school pictured in Figure 40. In most elementary schools an endeavor is made to locate the library in a more central position with reference to the classrooms.

Auditoriums, like libraries, are becoming more essential in the complete programs of modern schools. The establishment of work-study-play, or platoon schools has carried with it the need for auditorium facilities. As the values of the

¹⁴ Special library room for elementary schools were provided in Dayton, Ohio in 1902; in Newport, Rhode Island in 1906; in Gary, Indiana in 1908; in Detroit, Michigan in 1919; in Rockford, Illinois in 1920; in St. Louis, Missouri in 1921; and in Denver, Colorado in 1923.

FIRST FLOOR PLAN

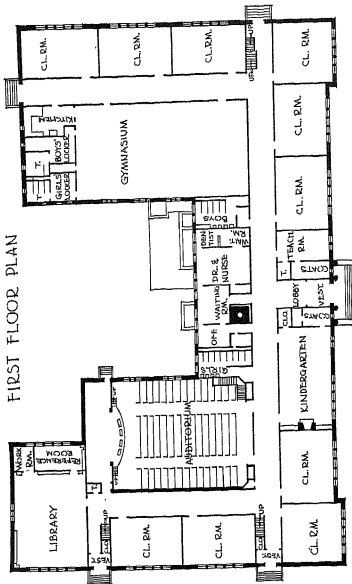


FIG. 41. FIRST FLOOR PLAN, PARLEY COBURN SCHOOL, ELMIRA, NEW YORK.
Courtesy of the *American School Board Journal*.

SECOND FLOOR PLAN

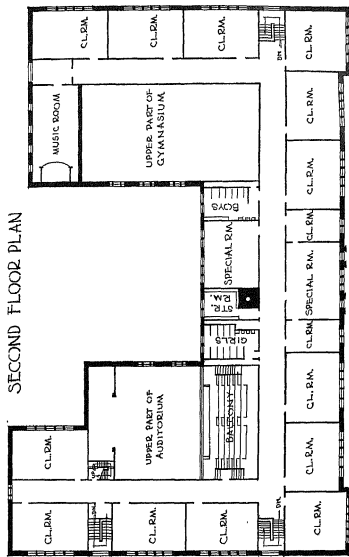


FIG. 42. SECOND FLOOR PLAN, PARLEY COBURN SCHOOL, ELMIRA, NEW YORK.
Courtesy of the *American School Board Journal*.

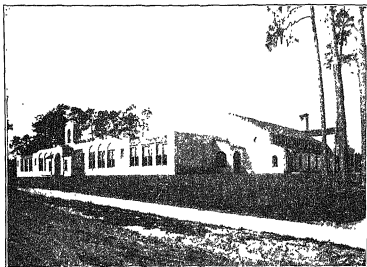


FIG. 43. DELAND GRADE SCHOOL, DAYTONA BEACH, FLORIDA.

Courtesy of H. M. Griffin, Architect, Daytona Beach, Florida.

educative experiences of the auditorium became more generally recognized, the demand for this specialized facility has increased. At the present time auditoriums are included, either as separate units or as gymnasium-auditorium combinations, in buildings in which non-platoon types of organization are to operate. Reference to Figures 41, 42, 43, and 44 will suggest how auditoriums have been provided in some elementary schools. Both the auditorium and the library afford the facilities through which may be developed a variety of community contacts and thus assist in establishing the local school as a community center.¹⁵

¹⁵ "A Grade School Which Is a Community Center," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 84 (March, 1932), p. 45.

E. W. Martin, "A School that Satisfies Civic as Well as Educational Needs," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 8 (October, 1931), pp. 33-37.

HEALTH FACILITIES

Since the World War increasing emphasis has been given to health education. The diversity of activities of a comprehensive health program makes it desirable that each school have a variety of facilities which have a direct relationship to this program. Some aspects of health work are highly specialized so that the program can be applied most effectively if specialized facilities are provided. Particularly essential are quarters for a clinic in which the work of the school nurse, doctor, and dentist may be conducted. Reference to Figure 41 will reveal a commonly selected position of the clinic with reference to other parts of the building, particularly the principal's office.

Other facilities quite essential to the effective application of a comprehensive health program are gymnasiums (in north-

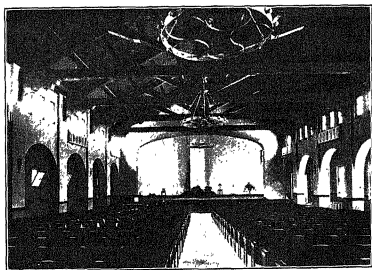


FIG. 44. AUDITORIUM, DELAND GRADE SCHOOL, DAYTONA BEACH, FLORIDA.

Courtesy of H. M. Griffin, Architect, Daytona Beach, Florida.

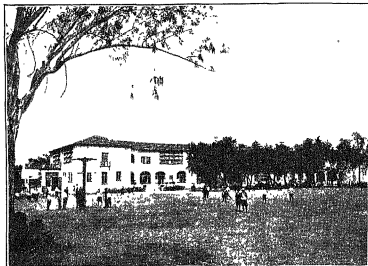


FIG. 45. PLAYGROUND, LINCOLN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, RIVERSIDE, CALIFORNIA.

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools and the *American School Board Journal*.

ern climates), playgrounds (Fig. 45), school lunchrooms, and adequate heating, ventilating, and lighting systems. There is little doubt about the fact that the facilities for health education which have been enumerated will become of increasing importance and hence demand greater attention in the development of plans for future elementary-school plants.

THE PRIMARY UNIT

Historically there has been a distinct break between the kinds of provisions public schools have made for children younger than those conventionally admitted to the first grade and the program for the first and second grades. So marked were the differences between the practices for pre-first-grade pupils and the activities in the typical primary grades that

the kindergarten was not looked upon as a part of the elementary-school program. The differences in the practices of these two segments of the school program are doubtless due to the fact that the kindergarten originated from sources and from influences quite different from those which shaped the curriculum for the early school grades. In many places the kindergarten, when first established was operated by private interests, even though the public schools provided a room in which the children might be met. Later, as kindergartens became more common and better organized, they were supported from public funds and became a part of the program of public education, but still they were operated in a fashion quite isolated from and un-integrated with the work of the lower grades. As the child-study movement has progressed the unsoundness of such inarticulation was recognized and persistent endeavors have been made to secure a closely integrated kindergarten-primary-grade curriculum. To date this objective has not been attained on a large scale in public-school practice, although the future promises more rapid progress. The predicted result is a much more closely coördinated program for children from ages four or five to nine, inclusive. Doubtless this unification will have marked influence upon the design and arrangement of classrooms for this age group. It is entirely possible that many specialized facilities, if properly located, can be used jointly by pupils of various age levels within this age group. The exact nature of the modifications in school plant which will result is hard to predict. Cues may be taken, however, from the plant facilities which have been commanded by the kindergarten curriculum, many features of which have already found their way into the lower grades.

Current kindergarten procedures stress "purposeful" individualized and socialized activities, group projects in which emphasis is placed upon self-activity and initiative. Activities are much varied in character, allowing plenty of time for free play, for painting and coloring, for construction and building with blocks, for stories, language work, and music, for time

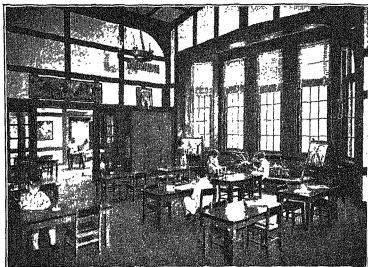


FIG. 46. KINDERGARTEN, OAKTON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, EVANSTON, ILLINOIS.

This building has a ground area of 53 by 105 feet and is quite different from the average kindergarten. The home room is used for painting, drawing, sewing, and weaving with the children gathering on the rug for storytelling and talks. The large pool in this room gives them an opportunity to test and sail boats they have taken such pride in making. On the balcony or mezzanine is a visitor's gallery where they may walk and inspect the school without interfering with the regular school program. Adjoining this room is a workshop which is a very busy place where woodworking, painting, and clay modeling are done.

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Dist. 76, Evanston, Illinois, and Childs and Smith, Architects, Chicago.

spent in the reading nook, on the playground, and in the garden, and for the care of pets. This multiplicity of activity requires many forms of built-in and movable equipment (Figs. 46 and 47) not found in conventional classrooms. In addition to specialized toilet facilities and wardrobes it is desirable to have ample storage and exhibition space, drinking fountains, aquariums, herbariums, reading nooks, and a workroom supplied with tools and materials. Kindergarten furniture is almost universally of the movable type, consisting of tables and

chairs,¹⁶ slides, climbing trees, building blocks, woodworking bench and tools, sand box, display rack, piano, and the teacher's chair and desk.

This list of kindergarten furniture and equipment contains many items which may also be found in modern nursery schools as well as in first-, second-, and third-grade classrooms; thus suggesting similarity of practices in these different units of the school program. As research and experience find new and better ways of unifying and articulating the educative experiences of the present nursery school, the kindergarten, and the lower grades there may develop a closely integrated program for children from two or three to eight or nine years

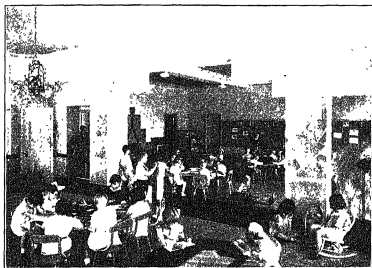


FIG. 47. KINDERGARTEN, WILLARD ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, EVANSTON, ILLINOIS.

Courtesy of Superintendent of Schools, Dist 75, Evanston, Illinois, and Childs and Smith, Architects, Chicago.

¹⁶ Beatrice Anderson, "The Seating of Kindergarten Children," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 81 (July, 1930), pp. 64-65.

of age. For present purposes this new unit may be called "the primary unit," and to its peculiar needs the plant program will have to be adjusted.

THE CHICAGO CENTURY OF PROGRESS SCHOOL

During the summer of 1933 Chicago celebrated its one hundredth anniversary as an incorporated city. The Chicago Board of Education planned to participate in the Century of Progress Exposition by erecting a school building designed to show a century of progress in school organization and in school-building construction.¹⁷ Plans were made to construct a six-grade elementary school on a site two blocks from the Exposition grounds on Lake Michigan, a site on which formerly twelve temporary portable buildings had been located. Although the World's Fair Elementary school was planned around a Chicago idea of education, the building was planned with the assistance of twenty-eight leading American school-building planners and school architects. As a result of the suggestions made by these various experts, the original plan was modified fully 33 per cent and the sketches were revised seventeen times.¹⁸ The school is thus no longer a Chicago plan, but a *national* plan.

Although each of the coöperating experts on school-house construction may not ascribe to all features of the plan as finally produced, the rather unusual approach to the planning of the building and the many unique features which it contains warrant an extended description of it. The building is to house a kindergarten and the first six grades. The total pupil capacity is 774. The structure is two stories in height, with-

¹⁷ Due to unusual reductions in the school budget, the construction of the building had to be postponed. Hence it was impossible to have the building ready for the World's Fair.

¹⁸ D. C. Rogers, "Planning the 1933 World's Fair Model Elementary School Building," *Official Report of the Annual Convention of the Department of Superintendence* (Washington, D. C., February, 1932), pp. 60-64.

out basement, and of steel construction with either brick or stone (Fig. 48). The building has a pronounced front and central entrance (Fig. 49), with an eighteen-foot foyer to be attractively decorated with lighted oil paintings, and a decorative arch. Opposite the foyer is the kindergarten with French doors, a fireplace, a circular bay with aquarium, a play room, play pool, a project room separated by folding doors which may be thrown together, private toilets, and a private exit leading to an outside play court. The flooring of the kindergarten is of rubber tile with colored inserts.

The auditorium will seat three hundred. It has a pitched floor. The walls and ceiling have received accoustical treatment. The platform is equipped with a motion-picture screen, a curtain, and drapes. A ramp leads from the corridor to the stage for moving the piano. The balcony is for sound and film projection only. The use of the auditorium by the public is facilitated by the provision for separate heating, ventilation, and public rest rooms. The entrance from the school corridor has been widened to avoid bottleneck congestion.

The gymnasium is located at the south end of the building. It may also be separate for community use. The balcony is designed for orchestra use only. The gymnasium is equipped with recessed folding tables with legs and seats attached; the tables can be shoved into a wall recess with one operation. With the aid of the adjoining kitchen, penny lunches may be served to pupils. Other facilities within the south-wing unit are a teachers' lunch room, a storeroom for chairs, and a physical director's office.

The second floor of the building features classrooms based upon a principle of flexibility. Through the use of folding doors and other arrangements (Fig. 50), it is possible to have five different sizes of rooms. The standard classroom size is 32'×22'×12'. By pulling aside the folding partition between adjacent classrooms a room of double classroom size is obtained. There are also eight small workrooms 11'×16' in size. Each of these will accommodate from three to six pupils so

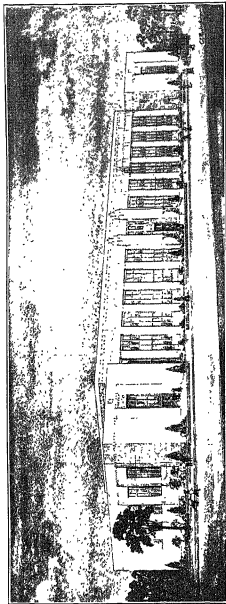


FIG. 48. SKETCH OF THE WORLD'S FAIR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

Courtesy of T. H. Higgins, Assistant Director, Bureau of Research and Building Survey, Chicago Public Schools.

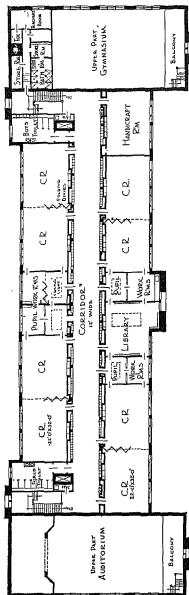


FIG. 50. SECOND-FLOOR PLAN, WORLD'S FAIR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

Courtesy of D. C. Rogers, Director of Research and Building Survey, Chicago Public Schools.

that from thirty to fifty pupils can be accommodated simultaneously. Some of these workrooms are fitted for art and construction projects, some for science, while others are equipped with blackboard, reference materials, and a "round-table" for group discussion. Note the proximity (Fig. 50) of some of the workrooms to the library. Two of the small workrooms are separated by a folding partition and can be combined into a larger room 16'×22' in size for dramatics or other activities requiring a separate room somewhat larger than the small workroom. The entire arrangement thus provides rooms of five sizes—the assembly hall, the double classroom, the classroom, the half classroom, and the

small workroom. Each of the regular classrooms is equipped with a plug at the rear and a projection conduit underneath the floor to the front of the room for sound projection. Radio outlets are in each room with central control in the principal's office.

One phase of educational theory which has influenced the preparation of the plans for this building is the belief that conventional educational procedure is sadly lacking in the amount of training it gives youth in critical discrimination and self-expression.¹⁹ Present practices in teaching are based largely on securing assent, the intellectual assent, of the pupil. Through lectures, questions, and discussion the teacher informs the students who in turn say they understand. The whole procedure tends to keep pupils continually in the attitude of assent. As pupils step out from the school to where things are not so carefully selected as in school they are not trained to exercise critical discrimination and to dissent. The child has had little opportunity to practice independence in thought.

It is hoped that the school may develop in children the habit of independent thinking and dissent if necessary. Such training is hardly possible in large groups in which social pressures and emotional inhibitions prevent free expression, even on the part of adults. To overcome these difficulties each pupil, at least during a part of his day, is given opportunity to stand for his own ideas. The small groups, ranging in size from the committee of three or four to a group of twelve or fifteen seem to provide the best opportunities for the desired types of training. Children will also be trained for appropriate participation in activities best suited to larger sized groups, such as the class of forty-five or the assembly. The exact types of activities best suited to each of the various-sized groups has not been carefully ascertained but promises to be a fruitful field for research.

¹⁹ J. E. McDade, "The Educational Aspect of the World's Fair School Building," *Official Report of the Annual Convention of the Department of Superintendence* (Washington, D. C., 1932), pp. 64-66.

On the whole, the World's Fair Elementary School is perhaps one of the best illustrations that might be chosen to demonstrate one of the main theses in the present chapter, namely, that the school plant should be planned in terms of the education program which is to be expressed and that the school plant should facilitate the application of a modern curriculum and modern theories of education. Every reader may not ascribe to the philosophy of education which has served as a guide in planning the World's Fair school, yet the plans of this school illustrate in a unique way the relation between the school plant and the educational program. The building itself permits of great flexibility in organization for present as well as future needs. It is designed to permit many radical departures from conventional teaching practices, yet it can be converted into a standard building at any time. The flexibility of its present arrangement affords almost unlimited opportunities for research, particularly with reference to the kinds of activities best suited to various-sized groups and the relative value of the activities found most suitable to each size of group.

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CHAPTER XVI

THE PROFESSIONAL ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

School administration in practically all cities of the United States is organized on a plan which provides that each local school unit which houses elementary-school children is in charge of an administrative head. The official titles as well as the duties of the heads of elementary schools differ materially from city to city and from school to school within the same city. Although the title of "principal" is used in approximately three-fourths of the cases,¹ other titles such as "super-vising principal" and "district principal" are used. Similarity of title, however, is no assurance that duties and responsibilities are identical or even similar. In some schools, primarily the smaller ones, the principal is simply a head-teacher who carries a full-time teaching load and does such administrative work as can be accomplished during spare moments and before and after school. The administration of the school thus becomes incidental to his other duties as teacher. In other schools may be found principals teaching only part of the time and devoting the remainder of their time to administrative and supervisory tasks. Usually in the larger elementary schools principals are relieved of all teaching duties.

In view of the varied practices which exist regarding both terminology and duties, it seems desirable to establish a definition of the term "principal" which may serve as a point of reference for the discussion and interpretation of the remainder of the chapter. It is recommended that the use of the

¹ *The Elementary School Principalship, Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association* (Washington, D. C., 1928), p. 170.

word "principal" be restricted to the administrative head of a school or schools who is primarily responsible for the supervisory direction of the school. He is the executive and supervising head of the school and works under the direction of a superintendent of schools. This definition implies that the principal shall have most of his time free for tasks relating to the organization, administration, and supervision of his school. Although the above definition will be the implied meaning in the subsequent use of the word "principal," it does not follow that the discussion will not be pertinent for those who cannot classify in the above rather arbitrary and rigid definition.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRINCIPALSHIP

Although the word "principal" has been used for a long time, the elementary-school principalship, according to the definition given above, is a recently developed position in the administration of public education. Morrison, after an analysis of manuscripts depicting the historical development of the elementary-school principalship in various eastern cities, points out that the first use of the word "principal" is difficult to trace.² Annual reports for the city of Albany, New York indicate that the title of principal had been used since the organization of the school system in 1844. The ordinance of the Common Council of Buffalo, New York, for the year 1863 outlines in some detail the duties of the elementary-school principal.

Since the exact title used is less significant in ascertaining the status of the principal than the duties of the position, it may be of interest to examine the latter. Historical records indicate clearly that the early principals were merely head teachers who had been assigned certain clerical and administrative tasks in addition to their teaching duties. As inter-

² J. C. Morrison, "The Principalship Develops Supervisory Status," in the *Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1931), Ch. i.

est in public education developed and the increasing number of children attending made larger school buildings essential, and as the monitorial and departmental schools were replaced by graded schools, the administrative and clerical duties increased in number and importance. The principal was also called on to perform certain functions which might legitimately be classed as supervisory in character.

The following excerpt quoted by Morrison from the Report of the School Committee of the Common Council of Buffalo, dated 1863, illustrates this point:

It is a two-story building of plain but imposing design in the form of an L with slate roof and substantial outbuildings. It has five rooms on each floor, and each room is designed to accommodate about seventy pupils, to be under the care of a single teacher. The principal's room on each floor will occupy that portion of the building represented by the lower left-hand corner of the L and is expected to seat from sixty to seventy-five pupils. The rooms are separated by sliding partitions so that all the rooms on each floor can be thrown into one, when occasion shall require it. These sliding partitions also are to be made mostly of glass in the form of window sash, so as to give freer access to the light and equalize its distribution and to enable the principal while engaged in his own room to inspect the management of all the others. As a measure of economy and convenience this plan is believed to be superior to any other hitherto devised and put in practice for school purposes.³

It soon became apparent that this multiplicity of duties could not be performed satisfactorily unless the principal were relieved of part of his teaching load. Thus may be recognized the beginnings of the elementary-school principalship as defined above. This stage in the development of the principalship did not come, however, until after the close of the nineteenth century. In the meantime the growth of the academies and high schools had transferred the allegiance and interest of the public and of the profession from the local elementary school to the high school. Invariably the elementary school became a ward school and frequently ward politicians became

³ *Ibid.*, p. 157.

interested in filling the principalship from among the ranks of teachers who through long years of tenure had demonstrated their abilities as classroom teachers and who had at the same time made a large circle of friends. Even if political ambitions were not present, it became the custom of superintendents to fill the position from the ranks of elementary classroom teachers. Consequently, as a result of these and other developments, it was not generally recognized that the principal should be equipped to exercise powers of leadership in his own school.

As the machinery for the administration of city schools grew in scope and complexity, superintendents felt the need for staffing the central office with administrative assistants of various kinds. The growing need for more and better supervision and direction of classroom instruction suggested the desirability of planning the administrative organization so that this need could be met. Those acting as principals of elementary schools were not qualified by either training or experience to participate effectively in the supervisory programs which were gradually developing. Realizing the status of the elementary principals, the superintendents resorted to supplying supervisory leadership through the appointment of supervisors who were to work out from the central administrative offices. Both general and special supervision developed, and principals were left largely to themselves in control of discipline, the performance of clerical duties, the exercise of executive detail, and classroom teaching.

Once the administrative machinery had developed in the above fashion, it became entrenched—like other established practices—and was difficult to alter even though weaknesses, maladjustments, and overlapping functions were recognized. It is little wonder, then, that it was not until relatively recent years that the elementary-school principalship has been recognized as a key position in the administration of the schools and has been assigned the major administrative and supervisory functions for which it is so strategically situated. The

slowness with which this development of the elementary principalship has taken place is indicated by the fact that even to-day, in many communities, those acting as elementary principals spend most of their time in classroom teaching and administrative and clerical detail.⁴

That progress is being made in attaching greater importance to the position of the elementary principal is indicated by recent investigations of the duties and activities of principals. Coxe found that 66 per cent of the elementary-school principals in New York cities and villages employing superintendents did no teaching whatsoever.⁵ The *Seventh Yearbook* committee found that a little more than 4 per cent of the average working day of the average supervising principal was given to classroom teaching.⁶ Although freedom from teaching is not the sole index of the importance attached to the position of principal, yet it seems clear that few principals will be able to exercise real professional supervisory capacities unless they are relieved from other duties.

The professional elementary-school principal, as defined earlier, is thus a comparatively recent addition to the organization for the administration of city schools. The first steps toward organizing the Department of Elementary School Principals in the National Education Association were taken in 1920 by a small group of principals attending the University of Chicago. By February, 1921, the committee had organized a program and held its first meeting with the Department of Superintendence at Atlantic City. Whether elementary principals will continue to develop their strategic

⁴ A study made in Ohio in 1926 showed that the average elementary-school principal spent 52 per cent of the average day in classroom teaching. See: J. C. Morrison, *The School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages*, Ohio State University Contributions to School Administration, No. 2 (May 15, 1926).

⁵ W. W. Coxe, *Study of the Elementary School Principal in New York State*, University of the State of New York *Bulletin*, No. 926 (June 15, 1929).

⁶ *The Elementary School Principalship*, *op. cit.*, p. 204.

opportunities for leadership in the administration of American education will depend upon the extent to which they will be prepared and competent to meet the challenges which seemingly are coming to them in increasing number.

THE POSITION OF THE PRINCIPAL IN THE ORGANIZATION FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The principal of an elementary school is usually considered as a line officer in the administration of the educational program of a city. The delegation of authority and responsibility usually proceeds from the superintendent of schools, through assistant and district superintendents, if such officers are found in the system, to the principal of the school. The principal of a school and the superintendent of a school system thus hold somewhat complementary positions in the administration of a system of public instruction.⁷ The superintendent is primarily responsible to the school-board and the people for the successful conduct of the whole school system while the principal is responsible for the successful operation of a single school or a group of related schools. It is largely the principal who must assume responsibility for applying in local units the educational policies and theories which have been adopted for the system as a whole and which it is hoped will find expression in the classrooms of the city. Obviously various types of administrative and supervisory officers will provide assistance but the proverb "as is the principal, so is the school" has now become a truism, for whatever are the educational policies within a single school, they are largely subject to the principal's direct control.

Since the principal must assume major responsibility for the ultimate application of the educational program, he must be an individual of broad professional knowledge and unique administrative capacity. Frequently educational policies, ad-

⁷ E. P. Cubberley, *The Principal and His School* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923), p. 19.

ministrative practices, and courses of study adopted for city-wide use must be adapted to fit the peculiar conditions in a local school unit. Adjustments must be made and the organization of the school must be shaped so that the actual educational experiences of children may be in general conformity with the centrally accepted plans. The larger the school system becomes the more marked will become the important relationship which the principal has to the central system of administration. Often new plans will be considered in conference with principals, and sometimes so decided, but often matured plans will merely be given to principals to execute. Whether or not the principal has had a part in forming the plans so promulgated, he must feel a personal responsibility for their effective application in his particular school. This requires breadth of knowledge, keen insights, and a willingness to coöperate fully in an effort to insure the success of his part of the common undertaking. As Cubberley points out, "success or failure, too, usually depends upon him alone. Closely as he is in touch with his teachers, he can determine almost absolutely the fate, in his school, of any policy the superintendent may inaugurate."⁸

THE WORK OF THE PRINCIPAL

The functions and duties of the principal of an elementary school are numerous and varied. The character of his position is such that the problems which come to him are almost as broad as the whole field of public education. Even though the elementary principal may not be called upon to deal with all the types of problems, he must be intelligent about them and direct his activities according to broad insights. Doubtless the exact duties performed by the principal vary in different schools because of the influence of community conditions, school size, pupil nationality, policies of the superintendent, the training of the principal himself, and other factors. There

⁸ E. P. Cubberley, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

may be enough similarity in the work of principals, however, so that an examination of their duties is of value.

Several extensive studies have been made of the functions and duties of elementary-school principals.⁹ A careful analysis of the findings of these studies is likely to be stimulating to any principal, especially if he compares his own practices with those of principals in other schools as reported in the investigations. Such analyses of the work of many principals and a comparison of the findings with the practices in a single school may tend to standardize the principalship. The values of such standardization will depend upon the extent to which principals use sound judgment in differentiating between accepted standards and the needs of the local school community. Doubtless all principals will profit by checking their activities against a well arranged list of duties of principals. Suggestions may be obtained for improving one's own work and one's distribution of time. One may even discover obligations not hitherto recognized. A comprehensive list of duties may also be helpful to superintendents in developing policies for clerical help, division of staff responsibilities, and selection of new principals.

A complete summary cannot be given at this point of the various studies which have been made of the functions and duties of elementary-school principals. Perhaps the same benefits may be derived from a careful examination of a composite list of duties of principals as prepared by a committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals. The list quoted below was prepared as a composite of the lists reported by various researches regarding principals' duties.¹⁰ It is given here in the hope that it may be helpful as a check of administrative practices.

⁹ These studies are summarized in *The Elementary School Principalship*, op. cit., Ch. iv.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 197-201.

COMPOSITE LIST OF PRINCIPAL'S DUTIES

The existence of several lists of duties of elementary-school principals suggested the possibility of combining these in a composite list. Such a list is given below. It attempts to include under several heads the most prominent duties which were given in each of ten different sources of information.

Principals should find this list valuable as a check against the kind of activities which they now perform. They may ask themselves several questions:

1. Am I performing duties not included on this list? Should I continue with these duties?
2. Am I failing to perform duties included on this list which I could do with advantage?
3. Is my division of time among the main topics what it should be?

*Principals' Duties Assembled from Ten Sources**I. Supervision**A. Class management*

1. Suggests how to improve discipline
2. Assists teachers with daily program
3. Suggests how to organize routine work
4. Inspects and recommends changes in the physical equipment of the room

B. Instructional

1. Gives counsel and aid to teachers
2. Discusses general methods of teaching
3. Discusses special methods of teaching
- ✓ 4. Suggests how to conduct various types of lessons
5. Gives demonstration lessons upon request
6. Suggests how to adapt methods to individual differences
7. Suggests how to improve study habits
8. Suggests how to improve lesson plans
9. Suggests remedial work for weak pupils
10. Suggests how to improve pupils' attitudes
11. Sends out mimeographed lesson helps
12. Trains and directs teachers in the use of texts
13. Gives special attention to new and substitute teachers

C. Class visitation

1. Visits teachers as often as possible
2. Encourages teachers to invite visitation

D. Pupil adjustment

1. Interviews pupils
2. Studies home conditions of pupils
3. Examines and grades pupils
4. Demotes or adjusts pupils
5. Makes special promotions

E. Supplementary

1. Coöperates with the supervisors
2. Advises and assists in collecting teaching materials
3. Directs testing and measuring
4. Consults with parents on pupil's work

F. Professional study and improvement

1. Encourages initiative among teachers
2. Organizes experimental work to test texts and methods
3. Holds monthly teachers' meetings
4. Sends teachers to visit
5. Presents model lessons at teachers' meetings
6. Sends out reading and self-help lists
7. Holds office hours for teachers needing help
8. Encourages professional organizations

G. Curriculum

1. Aids curriculum construction
2. Seeks articulation of subject-matter
3. Adapts curriculum to various groups

II. *Organization and Administration*

A. Pupil control and management

1. Disciplines pupils
2. Suspends pupils for cause
3. Inflicts corporal punishment
4. Witnesses corporal punishment
5. Approves special detention periods
6. Communicates with parents on child behavior
7. Directs and supervises pupil marching
8. Is responsible for pupils going to and from school
9. Admits pupils to school
10. Classifies new pupils
11. Requires tuition fee of non-resident pupils
12. Excludes pupils suspected of illness
13. Requires health certificates
14. Gives first-aid when needed
15. Approves excuses for absence or tardiness

16. Approves early dismissal of pupils
17. Stimulates attendance through special means
18. Builds up school spirit
19. Provides civic and character training
20. Provides pupil participation in government
21. Signs employment certificates
22. Gives out no list of pupils
23. Requires pupils to pay for damage to school
24. Provides classes for differences in ability

B. General management

1. Inspects and is responsible for buildings, grounds and equipment
2. Is responsible for heating and ventilation
3. Is responsible for sanitary conditions
4. Is responsible for damage or loss
5. Sees that clocks keep correct time
6. Maintains proper care and custody of the flag
7. Requires exits to be unlocked
8. Is responsible for general management and discipline
9. Assigns teachers for building control
10. Is responsible for order and neatness
11. Exercises lunch supervision and lunchroom control
12. Makes rules for building control
13. Provides place and supervision for early arrivals
14. Is responsible for wise organization and administration
15. Enforces rules and regulations of school-board
16. Permits no advertising in school
17. Permits no vendors or salesmen in school
18. Permits no solicitation of funds
19. Permits only approved lectures and exhibits
20. Restricts use of telephone
21. Dismisses classes according to schedules
22. Dismisses school early in emergencies
23. Approves admission of visitors
24. Hears complaints of parents
25. Arranges assemblies and exercises of school
26. Coördinates the work of departments and grades
27. Assists with banking and thrift activities
28. Coöperates with health workers
29. Makes school policies
30. Holds fire drills at least once a month
31. Teaches pupils and teachers the plan of fire drill
32. Tests fire alarm daily

C. Teachers

1. Coöperates in selection of teachers
2. Reports on or rates teachers for superintendent
3. Acquaints teachers with rules of the school-board
4. Requires teachers to follow course of study
5. Reports negligent teachers to the superintendent
6. Assigns teachers to grades
7. Stimulates morale among teachers
8. Reports teacher absences daily to central office
9. Secures substitute teachers
10. Provides substitutes with lesson plans
11. Reports on efficiency of substitutes
12. Requires teachers to post daily program
13. Requires teachers to post name outside of classroom
14. Requires teachers to keep records
15. Examines records kept by teachers
16. Reviews correspondence between parents and teachers
17. Requires teachers to ventilate rooms
18. Suggests to teachers how to improve appearance of rooms
19. Suggests proper use of school supplies
20. Distributes special bulletins and orders to teachers
21. Files copy of daily program with superintendent

D. Personal

1. Carries out wishes of the superintendent
2. Secures superintendent's approval on leaving building
3. Notifies superintendent of absence or sickness
4. Engages in no other employment
5. Personally visits homes in cases of illness or death
6. Is at school 30 minutes early in morning
7. Receives and entertains visiting teachers

E. Janitor

1. Supervises and directs the janitor
2. Enforces rules pertaining to the janitor
3. Permits janitor to leave building
4. Reports negligent janitor to superintendent

III. *Clerical*

A. Supplies and repairs

1. Requisitions books and supplies
2. Files annual estimate of required supplies
3. Checks and signs for supplies
4. Files inventory of books and supplies

5. Is responsible for books and supplies
6. Files inventory of school property
7. Returns keys to central office
8. Notifies central office of necessary repairs

B. Reports

1. Receives and checks data of reports
2. Furnishes all reports requested by superintendent
3. Reports to superintendent on the school
4. Reports on fees and school funds
5. Reports on pupil attendance
6. Makes payroll report on teachers
7. Reports corporal punishment to superintendent
8. Reports accidents to superintendent
9. Reports fire drills to superintendent
10. Reports names of non-resident pupils
11. Notifies parents and superintendent of suspensions
12. Reports suspected truants to parents
13. Reports suspected truants to attendance officers
14. Issues transfer blanks

C. Records

1. Keeps records requested by the superintendent
2. Makes record of pupil attendance
3. Keeps record of teacher attendance
4. Keeps data on pupils' names, ages, etc.
5. Keeps data on fire drills

D. Miscellaneous

1. Answers the telephone
2. Checks and maintains the office files
3. Conducts correspondence
4. Registers new pupils

IV. *Teaching* (Regular teaching would vary with specific situation.)

V. *Miscellaneous*

A. Professional

1. Attends meetings called by the superintendent
2. Confers with superintendent and other school officers
3. Attends educational meetings
4. Holds membership in professional organizations
5. Reads educational literature

B. Extracurriculum

1. Sponsors extracurriculum activities
2. Makes the playground function
3. Assists with school clubs
4. Encourages athletics

C. Parent-teacher work

1. Uses the parent-teacher organization in work
2. Secures the coöperation of the parents

D. Community

1. Secures coöperation of various agencies of the community
2. Participates in community activities
3. Answers the questions of the public
4. Contributes to school publicity

The committee does not consider the preceding summary of activities as a final list for supervising principals. Although progress has been made in recent years it is not yet possible to speak with finality as to just which duties a principal should perform. It will probably never be possible to set up a final list for activities which all supervising principals should adopt. Special conditions existing in a school will always determine, to a considerable extent, just how a particular principal can secure maximum results.

The preceding list, if properly used, should stimulate principals to take stock of the character of their activities. If desired, a principal may keep a detailed diary of his activities over a period of two or three weeks. A comparison of his own activities with this list will be interesting. Also, calculations may be made of the distribution of his time and compared with the findings of investigations.¹¹ According to the judgment of principals themselves, they should like to distribute their time as follows: 51 per cent to supervision; 25 per cent to administration; 5.8 per cent to clerical work; 5.7 per cent to teaching; and 11.7 per cent to other duties. It is only through continuous study and careful analysis that principals can perform their various functions at the highest level of efficiency and can select for major consideration those activi-

¹¹ Summaries of investigations regarding the distribution of principals' time are given in Chapter XIV.

ties most commensurate with the obligations of a professional elementary-school principal.¹²

PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP IN LOCAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Education has come to be a broad and intricate field of endeavor. Nearly every phase of teaching and learning has been subjected to careful study and research and there is available a body of literature presenting the data which have been gathered, and attempting to interpret the facts and related theories. If the concept of teaching and learning may be extended to include such items as educational objectives, curriculum, administration, finance, and teacher training, and if one also remembers that education is applied from the pre-school period to adulthood, it is evident that education is as comprehensive as any one field of human endeavor. Any person who has the self-confidence to accept a position which carries responsibilities for the direction and guidance of this broad and all-important social enterprise must be an individual of extensive training, keen insights, and of unique leadership and administrative qualities. Although the elementary school principal is responsible for leadership in only the introductory unit of the system of public schools, he must be a student of the entire program for public education in order that he may have the proper perspective regarding the relationship of his unit to the other units in the system. In the past much inarticulation between school units has been caused by the lack of this perspective on the part of teachers and administrators. Then, too, the elementary principal has charge of the type of school which reaches the largest number of patrons and pupils. Public attitudes regarding education are molded in large measure while the children of each family are attending the elementary school. From the viewpoint of

¹² For suggestions regarding the relative importance of various activities of principals, see W. P. Dyer, *Activities of the Elementary-School Principal for the Improvement of Instruction*, Contributions to Education, No. 274 (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927).

the child the elementary school is of capital significance because of the importance of proper direction of learning during the early years.

Elementary education is of sufficient importance and complexity to challenge the superior abilities of the most competent persons that can be mustered into the profession. Certainly the opportunities for service are large for those who aim to be principals of elementary schools. Throughout the preceding chapters current theories and administrative practices have been subjected to critical analyses, and attention has been called to the many unsolved problems regarding the organization and administration of elementary schools. Intelligent experimentation and the ultimate solution of pertinent issues hold vague hope unless those most closely associated with the management of schools—the principals—can assume active leadership.

Within a specific elementary school, teachers, pupils, and patrons look to the principal for leadership. Even though general and special supervisors may assist with certain phases of the work, the eyes of the school community are focused upon the principal. It is from him that counsel and guidance is most frequently sought. Pathetically enough this leadership is frequently lacking. Its absence, however, is soon recognized by teachers, pupils, and others. Conversely, a high quality of professional leadership invariably generates a businesslike air of enthusiasm and confidence. Usually the influence of the principal is so potent, whether positively or negatively, that the atmosphere of the school reflects his leadership.

The opportunities, or, better stated, the obligations for leadership may be classified roughly into several divisions. As previously discussed, the principal is a line officer in the plan for school administration. As an administrative officer he has frequent occasion in conference to assist in the formulation of policies for the school system. At all times he carries major responsibility for applying in his own school in the most effective manner the policies which have been accepted for city-

wide use. Consequently he has the continuous challenge of organizing and administering his school in a fashion which will permit the adopted theories and principles to receive expression in classroom instruction. As indicated repeatedly in previous chapters, the kind of education which is actually provided children through classroom instruction is dependent upon the way a school is organized and administered. The classification and promotion of pupils, the organization of the program for instruction, the selection and application of the curriculum and instructional materials, the administration of the library and the service agencies must all be shaped and evaluated in terms of the aims and functions of elementary education and in the light of sound policies regarding the manner in which educative activities shall proceed. Such critical analysis and constant evaluation of administrative practices are not small tasks and command high types of professional knowledge on the part of those who would aim to do a thorough piece of work.

With reference to the teachers in his building the elementary principal carries obligations for leadership more important even than those previously named. No matter how modern and scientific the organization, if the teaching is traditional, inefficient, and out of harmony with the accepted philosophies of education, the whole scheme fails. Teachers, too, must receive constant stimulation and encouragement to become real students of education. There will be constant need for a discussion and interpretation of educational objectives, the selection and application of curriculum materials, the measurement of pupil abilities, the diagnosis of pupil needs and difficulties, the adaptation of materials and methods to individual differences in children, the classification and promotion of pupils, as well as many other problems which daily confront teachers who are trying to apply modern educational science in classroom teaching. In fact, practically all the problems usually classified under the caption of "supervision of instruction" will arise from time to time to challenge the pro-

fessional leadership of the principal. There is no implication here that the principal should have ready answers to all the questions which may arise. No one who knows the literature in education has ready-made solutions. Yet, to exert the leadership which an elementary principal should manifest, one must be familiar with professional literature and be able to direct the interests of teachers to worth-while readings and study which may eventuate in teachers' meetings or conferences at which intelligent methods of handling the problems may be decided. In order to effect professional growth on the part of teachers, it is essential that the principal be recognized as a professional leader.

Another important phase of the principal's work is community leadership. The elementary principal, because of the respected position which he occupies in the minds of his school patrons, is strategically situated to interpret the work of the schools to the people, to mold public attitudes regarding the school, and to keep the public constantly informed and intelligent about the changes which are occurring in the practices of the school. One of the most beneficial results of continuous contact with the community immediately surrounding the school is the coöperation between teachers and parents. The work of the school can be much more effective if what teachers try to do in school receives not only approval but enthusiastic support from parents. Desirable community relationships are difficult to secure and to maintain if principals do not assume an active interest and demonstrate a positive leadership.¹³

THE TRAINING OF THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL

In view of the work which the principal of an elementary school must do and the types of professional leadership which are expected of him, it seems pertinent to examine his training

¹³ H. C. Johnstone, "The Key Position of an Elementary-School Principal," *School Executives Magazine*, Vol. 51 (February, 1932), pp. 254-255.

as one index of his qualifications for the position he holds. Some years ago it was common practice to promote a successful elementary-school teacher of many years' experience, but of rather limited educational preparation, to an elementary-school principalship. Partially as a result of this practice many of those who were designated as "principals" were not qualified to assume the responsibilities which might have been assigned to them and which perhaps more logically belonged with them as the various phases of school administration developed. At any rate, as the organization for the administration and supervision of schools grew, the elementary principal was left in the background with teaching and with a group of minor administrative and clerical duties as his major concern. The elementary principalship thus developed a professional status much inferior to that which it ought to command in view of its strategic position in the general scheme for school administration. In recent years, however, superintendents as well as principals have recognized more fully the opportunities of the position and there has been a demand for elementary principals adequately trained to render the professional services which in increasing numbers have been delegated to the position.

That incumbent principals and those anticipating the elementary principalship have been somewhat responsive to this need is indicated by the increasing levels of training of principals and the interest of principals in professional organizations. The Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association was established in 1921. Its present membership is about five thousand. The *First Yearbook* of the Department was issued in 1922. A large number of state and city principals' clubs have been organized. The bulletins and yearbooks issued by many of them are evidence of the interest of their members in the improvement of the professional status of the principal.

The training of principals, as measured by college courses taken and degrees received, has gradually improved. Various

investigations made since 1926 have shown that approximately 50 per cent of the elementary principals hold bachelor's degrees.¹⁴ The most recent data available are those obtained as a part of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers.¹⁵ These data (Table LXXXIV) show the distribution of training among the 8,883 principals who reported. It is clearly evident that the men far surpass the women in amount of training; 60.7 per cent of the men report four or more years of college work whereas only 31.0 per cent of the women report similar amounts. This difference may be due, perhaps, to the fact a greater percentage of women were appointed some years ago when the requirements were much less than at present. Another explanation may be that a greater percentage of women have been promoted from elementary-school teaching positions. Plausible explanation, however, should not be accepted as justification for inadequate preparation for the position held.

On the whole, principals may be complimented on the general progress which has been made in recent years to really professionalize the elementary principalship. A few questions should be raised, however, regarding adequate preparation for the position. Although the approximate median amount of

¹⁴ J. C. Morrison, *op. cit.*

W. W. Cox, *op. cit.*

The Elementary School Principalship, op. cit., Ch. iii.

J. S. Thomas, "The Status of the Michigan Principalship," *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, Vol. 12, No. 1 (October, 1932), pp. 16-19.

J. W. Wisheart, "The Elementary School Principalship in New Mexico," *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, Vol. 9, No. 4 (July, 1930), pp. 757-761.

A. B. Caldwell and J. M. Shields, "Status of the Elementary Principal in North Carolina," *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, Vol. 8, No. 4 (July, 1929), pp. 555-561.

C. M. Reinoehl and R. A. Cooper, "The Elementary Principal in Arkansas," *The National Elementary Principal*, Vol. 12, No. 3 (February, 1933), pp. 67-70.

¹⁵ W. S. Deffenbaugh, *Elementary School Principals*, U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Leaflet No. 43* (1932).

TABLE LXXXIV
THE PERCENTAGE OF MEN AND WOMEN PRINCIPALS AT EACH OF VARIOUS LEVELS OF TRAINING — 1932 *

EDUCATION	OPEN COUNTRY		VILLAGES LESS THAN 2,500		CITIES 2,500—9,999		CITIES 10,000—99,999		CITIES 100,000 OR MORE		TOTAL	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women		
Non-graduate elementary school.	0	27	0	0.17	0	0.12	0.11	0.05	0	0	0.03	0.06
Graduate elementary school only.			50	.17	.49	0	.11	.11	00	0	.26	.08
High School												
1 year...	27	.27	.25	17	0	12	.11	.11	0	.06	11	.11
2 years...	1.87	1.07	.87	.69	0	.36	0	.82	.19	.24	.45	.39
3 years...	1.34	.80	.25	1.37	.25	1.19	.23	1.54	.09	1.15	.31	1.29
4 years...	2.14	3.22	2.37	4.12	.73	3.82	.90	5.51	1.03	3.97	1.38	4.42
College												
6-12 weeks...	3.48	3.49	2.25	2.57	.25	1.55	.56	1.96	.19	.78	1.10	1.70
Half year...	2.94	3.22	2.00	2.57	.49	1.31	.11	1.54	.28	.96	.93	1.55
1 year...	9.89	20.91	8.24	10.81	2.44	7.28	3.49	9.18	1.69	10.11	4.57	10.17
2 years...	25.93	34.85	25.72	36.36	17.60	38.31	11.24	33.05	5.43	18.89	15.05	29.96
3 years...	22.46	16.89	20.97	19.56	22.98	23.99	14.88	20.85	5.90	16.70	15.16	19.32
4 years...	20.86	10.99	23.85	16.98	34.47	17.06	34.27	17.93	25.28	25.15	27.81	19.43
Graduate work												
1 year...	5.61	2.41	9.36	3.60	13.69	3.22	21.46	5.62	26.87	11.55	17.79	6.63
2 years...	2.14	1.61	2.00	.69	4.66	.95	8.99	1.54	16.20	5.24	8.36	2.51
3 years...	.53	0	12	0	1.71	.36	2.02	.53	6.93	1.93	2.88	.84
More than 3 years	.27	0	1.25	.17	.25	.36	2.02	.26	9.83	4.27	3.81	1.50
Total...	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

* Adapted from W. S. Deffenbaugh, *Elementary School Principals*, U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education, *Leaflet No. 43* (1932), p. 3.

training is represented by four years of college work (including men and women) and a small percentage have had one or more years of graduate work, there are many who appear to be inadequately trained to assume vital leadership in the important positions which they hold. The data show (Table LXXXIV) that 2.5 per cent of the men and 6.4 per cent of the women have had no training beyond high school, and that 24.19 per cent of the men and 49.71 per cent of the women have had two years or less of college work. One may well ask, how well prepared are these people to offer professional leadership to their teachers, most of whom have equal amounts of training and many of whom have more training than the principal? Although college training is not the only index to professional competence, it is one of the best measures available. Consequently, the answer must be that many of those holding elementary principalships at present are ill prepared to do justice to their position. Morrison relates an experience which is apropos.¹⁰ While making a survey of a city school system a few years ago he found several elementary-school principals who were entirely free from classroom teaching assignments. Of the seven principals concerned, only one was a normal school graduate and only two others had studied in normal school or college; four had had no professional training other than a one-year training course in the high school of that city; and none of the seven had had any teaching experience outside the city except in a one-teacher school in years gone by. Not a single principal's office contained a bookcase, a professional book, or a magazine. Not one of the seven knew how to make out an age-grade table. Yet the survey committee found that certain of these principals were very diligent in spending a considerable portion of their time in visiting classroom teachers. What service could such visitation render? Data from another investigation show that 33 per cent of 705 principals had never studied any professional

¹⁰ *Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (1931), p. 159.

course whatsoever and only 36 per cent had studied any course in supervision.¹⁷ Obviously not much can be anticipated from persons so inadequately prepared.

The need for better preparation on the part of principals will increase as they are delegated larger supervisory responsibilities and as the general level of training of classroom teachers rises. Those principals who are accepting with any degree of seriousness the new challenges which they are meeting are taking every opportunity to improve themselves. Those who find it difficult to obtain leaves of absence are availing themselves of extension and summer-school courses which are now offered by a large number of colleges and schools of education. Professional and general reading, attendance at professional meetings, and writing for educational journals are other means for improvement. The minimum goal of every elementary principal should be four years of college plus a graduate year with a major in education. So important is the training, competence, and professional leadership of the elementary principal that some school administrators believe that the best chance of improving the elementary schools of America is to improve the elementary principals of America.

THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE PRINCIPAL

Those interested in qualifying themselves properly for the elementary-school principalship may desire to investigate the economic status of elementary principals. If the principalship is going to command the most competent and well trained men and women in the profession, it is quite essential that the economic rewards of the position be adequate to attract the desired persons. Although the advantages of a position and the rewards it offers to an individual cannot be measured entirely by money income, it is important that the money income be sufficient to warrant the expenditures for preparation and to enable the individual to maintain a social and

¹⁷ W. W. Coxe, *op. cit.*

economic status commensurate with the position. The most recent data available (Table LXXXV and Fig. 51) show that the median salary for women principals ranges from \$1,188 in the open country to \$3,140 in cities of 100,000 or more. The corresponding figures for men principals are \$1,197 and \$3,900. Median salaries rise consistently with years of experience as a principal (Table LXXXVI), and with increases in amounts of training (Table LXXXVII). The maximum salaries for principals range from less than

\$2,000 to \$5,400 or more. In six cities the highest maximum salary for elementary-school principals is \$7,000 and over.²⁸ The variations in salary which are noted depend upon a variety of factors, such as local policies, cost of living, size of elementary-school units, the duties assigned to principals, and training and experience requirements.

It will be observed from the above facts that in many instances the salaries of principals are little higher than those paid classroom teachers in the same system. Also, principals in some cities receive less than do teachers in other cities. Factors similar to those listed above are operative in producing the apparent discrepancies. Many will feel that in the past the salaries of principals have been too low. In terms of the proposed standards of training and experience this is doubtless true, but one must remember that many salary schedules

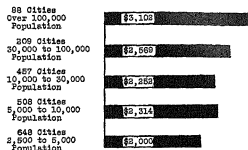


FIG. 51. MEDIAN SALARIES PAID SUPERVISING ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN 1932-1933.

From *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. 11, No. 2 (March, 1933).

²⁸ *Salaries in City School Systems, 1930-1931, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. 9, No. 3 (May, 1931), p. 173.

TABLE LXXXV
SALARIES OF MEN AND WOMEN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS—1932 *

	OPEN COUNTRY		VILLAGES, LESS THAN 2,500		CITIES, 2,500—9,999		CITIES, 10,000—99,999		CITIES, 100,000 OR MORE		TOTAL	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Q ₁	930	8972	\$1,145	\$1,210	\$1,320	\$1,545	\$1,800	\$2,186	\$2,615	\$2,430	\$1,615	\$1,732
Median.....	1,188	1,197	1,390	1,475	1,632	1,870	2,110	2,631	3,140	3,900	2,105	2,612
Q ₃	1,400	1,444	1,825	2,022	2,035	2,395	2,500	2,912	4,035	4,355	2,683	3,490
Number reporting.....	316	245	495	723	767	345	1,744	784	1,619	1,004	4,941	3,110

* From W. S. Deffenbaugh, *Elementary School Principals*, p. 7.

TABLE LXXXVI

MEDIAN SALARIES OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ACCORDING TO EXPERIENCE *

Years of Experience	Open Country	Villages, Less Than 2,500	Cities, 2,500 — 9,999	Cities, 10,000 — 99,999	Cities, 100,000 or More
-3.....	\$920	\$1,192	†	†	†
-5.....	1,073	1,300	\$1,525	\$1,855
-9.....	1,162	1,415	1,670	2,080	\$2,585
0-14.....	1,335	1,480	1,695	2,170	2,985
5 and more.....	1,360	1,600	1,780	2,290	3,450

* From W. S. Deffenbaugh, *Elementary School Principals*, p. 8.

† Very few with experience of less than four years.

TABLE LXXXVII

MEDIAN SALARIES OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF TRAINING *

	Six Weeks to Two Years College	Three to Four Years College	One Year or More Graduate Work
Men.....	\$1,825	\$2,210	\$3,320
Women.....	1,975	2,105	2,995

* From W. S. Deffenbaugh, *Elementary School Principals*, p. 8.

were established at a time when the status of the elementary principal was far from the desired goal to which it will develop in the future, that the training of many principals and hence the duties they were competent to perform did not warrant distinctive salaries, and that at present many principals are receiving low salaries because they cannot qualify for larger ones. It is likely that in the future as principals become qualified in larger numbers to exert dynamic professional leadership in their own schools their salaries will become more comparable to the incomes of persons in other professions

which demand similar amounts of preparation. The general trend of teachers' salaries has been upward; 75 per cent of the cities of more than 10,000 population reported higher salaries for 1930-1931 than for 1928-1929 while 60 per cent of cities with less than 10,000 population reported higher salaries for 1930-1931 than for 1928-1929.¹⁹ Recent decreases in school budgets have forced reductions in the salaries of teachers and principals, but after normal economic conditions are established one may again expect adjustments in salaries which will be more commensurate with the services rendered.

Although no single proposal regarding a desirable salary schedule for principals can be applied in all situations, a tentative recommendation may serve as a helpful guide. In Table LXXXVIII is found the tentative proposal of a committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals. The comment of the Committee regarding this schedule is as follows:²⁰

Before it will be possible to estimate the cost of professionalizing the wages of elementary-school principals, it will be necessary to determine the rates of a professional schedule for this office. In suggesting such a schedule certain warnings should be given. No one schedule can be satisfactory for the various state and many local school systems of the nation. . . .

The presentation of the professional schedule for elementary school principals of Table LXXXVIII has two purposes. First, it offers a basis for arriving at an approximation of the cost involved in lifting the compensation of elementary-school principals to a professional level. Second, it offers an opportunity to illustrate certain features of salary scheduling which might profitably be considered for adoption in scheduling principals' salaries in a local situation.

These are among the features of the proposed schedules:

1. It places the beginning salaries for elementary-school principals at \$2,000. This is the lower limit for professional incomes suggested

¹⁹ *Salaries in City School Systems 1930-1931*, *op. cit.*, p. 163.

Salaries of principals in 1932-1933 were from 6 to 8 per cent lower than in 1930-1931. For details, see "Salaries in City School Systems, 1932-1933," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. 11, No. 2 (March, 1933).

²⁰ *The Elementary School Principalship*, *op. cit.*, pp. 478-481.

TABLE LXXXVIII
A TENTATIVE PROFESSIONAL-SALARY SCHEDULE FOR SUPERVISING-ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT	CLASSES	YEARS OF ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING BEYOND HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION	YEARS OF EXPERIENCE						
			1-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13-15	16-20	21 or Over
Below 500.....	I-A	4	\$2,000	\$2,250	\$2,500	\$2,750	\$3,000	\$3,000	\$3,000
	I-B	5	2,750	3,000	3,250	3,500	4,000	4,000
	I-C	6	3,500	3,750	4,000	4,500	5,000
500 to 999.....	II-A	4	2,500	2,750	3,000	3,250	3,500	3,500	3,500
	II-B	5	..	3,250	3,500	3,750	4,000	4,500	4,500
	II-C	6	4,000	4,250	4,500	5,000	5,500
1,000 to 1,999....	III-A	4	3,000	3,250	3,500	3,750	4,000	4,000	4,000
	III-B	5	3,750	4,000	4,250	4,500	5,000	5,000
	III-C	6	4,250	4,500	5,000	5,500	6,000
2,000 to 2,999....	IV-A	4	3,500	3,750	4,000	4,250	4,500	4,500	4,500
	IV-B	5	4,250	4,500	4,750	5,000	5,500	5,500
	IV-C	6	4,750	5,000	5,500	6,000	6,500
3,000 and over...	V-A	4	4,000	4,250	4,500	4,750	5,000	5,000	5,000
	V-B	5	4,750	5,000	5,250	5,500	6,000	6,000
	V-C	6	5,250	5,500	6,000	6,500	7,000

above. Some would be inclined to call this too low. It is slightly below the average income for the nation's gainfully occupied persons, of all types—skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled. It is only \$140 above the beginning wage of the third-class professional workers of the government. Many communities have already put into effect a schedule for elementary school principals with a higher beginning salary than \$2,000. These facts are recognized. A minimum salary of \$2,000 for elementary principals would be too low for many school systems. This figure as a minimum is suggested only for the smaller schools, those under 500 in enrollment.

On the other hand, such a minimum if put into effect today would increase the salary of over 40 per cent of these officers. It would represent in thousands of communities a decided advance in the direction of placing this office on a solid economic basis.

Some might be inclined to consider \$2,000 too high a beginning professional minimum. These should have in mind that this figure is proposed as the beginning wage for a selected group of a profession, who have generally served several years with success as teachers, assistant principals, or in other school positions before they qualify for an elementary-school principalship. The beginning elementary school principal has a different status than beginning or unsuccessful lawyers, doctors, or engineers, many of whom doubtless earn less than \$2,000 a year. The elementary-school principal is neither a professional failure nor a beginner in his profession. It is probable that the great majority of successful professional people earn considerably more than \$2,000 after several years of work in their chosen calling.

2. The schedule places the maximum at \$7,000. Such a maximum would present progress for most cities. The high cost of living and other factors in some cities might justify a higher maximum. A maximum of \$7,000 is below the maximum for first-class professional workers in the government. At the present time 645,653 people in the United States have incomes of \$7,000 or more. This maximum salary has already been realized for elementary-school principals in one city. It is not too large to propose for a man or woman with six years' technical training beyond high school graduation, who, after several years' experience as a teacher or assistant principal and twenty years as a supervising principal, and who possesses the unusual ability which justifies his being placed in charge of a school of three thousand or more pupils, with a faculty of seventy-five or more teachers.

3. The progress of the schedule from beginning to maximum salary proceeds at a rate somewhat slower than is the general practice, and the maximum is consequently not reached until after twenty

years of service. This would mean that a man or woman qualifying for an elementary-school principalship at thirty would reach the maximum at fifty. This feature of the schedule accepts the principle that low beginning salaries with smaller increases over a longer period of years, rising to a substantial maximum, are preferable to higher beginning salaries rising by comparatively large increases to an earlier and less substantial maximum.

4. The schedule accepts the principle that the amount of training possessed should be one criterion in determining a salary. It is not intended to imply that this should be the sole criterion for differentiation between the three groups in each school-enrollment class. In order to pass from the A to the B and from the B to the C class, a principal should be able to demonstrate that he has done something more than serve time in a certain number of college courses. He should be able to prove that his added training and experience are functioning. His leadership should reveal itself in the form of a professionally alert and improving faculty. His influence should have extended beyond his school and be a force for educational advance in the community. A second requirement for passing from one class to the higher should be the ability to pass a stiff professional examination of the type already used with success in some cities. The schedule would give the increased salary based upon five years of professional training only after three years of service, and that indicative of six years of training only after six years of service. Such a plan is designed to encourage a well planned leisurely supplementing of one's professional training through well selected courses, rather than hurried progress through a given number of courses, some of which may be taken as much to earn units as to increase one's professional knowledge.

5. The salary increments cease if after a reasonable time a principal is not able to demonstrate professional progress. Those with but four years of training cease to progress after twelve years until additional training is obtained. The same principle applies to those with five years of professional training, after sixteen years of service.

6. The differentiation between the schedules for schools of different enrollments is less than many schedules provide. The theory is that even though a child may have to attend a relatively small school he should have the opportunity that only a school with a first-rate principal can offer. The smaller the schedule differentiations on the basis of school enrollment, the less it will be necessary to promote a principal out of a district where he is rendering effective service, because his school is not as large as some others.

THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP AS A CAREER IN
ADMINISTRATION

The elementary-school principalship in America is of sufficient importance and its duties and responsibilities are of sufficient scope and magnitude to challenge the abilities of the most competent persons in the profession and to command a place among the professions which are selected by individuals as life-time interests. Throughout the preceding chapters attention has been called to the breadth of general and professional knowledge and administrative ability which *must* be among the possessions of an individual who accepts the responsibilities for the organization, direction, and supervision of an elementary school. Modern theories and principles of education cannot find expression in classroom instruction unless the organization and administration of the school facilitate at every turn the application of current educational science. A review of the many tasks which befall the hands of the principal, and the leadership which the administrative head of the school should demonstrate, provide convincing evidence that an elementary principal who measures up to his job is a person whose abilities command universal respect. And when such statements can be made about a position, it may well be ranked among the professions which are considered a life-work.

The development of the principalship itself adds to the attractiveness of the position as a career in administration. In tracing briefly the history of the elementary-school principal, attention was called to the fact that the professionalization of the position has taken place largely since 1921. Within the past decade principals have qualified themselves to perform in a more capable manner the increasing number of responsibilities which were being delegated to them in a growing organization. As principals have become qualified to exert leadership, superintendents and boards of education have not

been reluctant to rearrange the programs of principals to give them opportunity to apply their professional knowledges. In gradually increasing proportions, elementary-school principals have been relieved of classroom-teaching assignments and clerical detail so they might devote their energies to the more important problems of organization, administration, and supervision. This general movement to professionalize the position of the elementary principal promises to continue. The cumbersome machinery for the supervision and administration of the schools which has developed during the past quarter century is not functioning smoothly at all points and fundamental reorganizations have already been effected in a number of cities. The conflicts and overlappings of staff duties and responsibilities and the lack of integrated supervisory activities which are becoming evident in some school systems raise serious questions about the manner in which professional leadership has been provided in the past. In the reorganizations which are appearing the elementary-school principal is evolving as the real administrative and supervisory leader of his school. The new challenges confronting elementary principals are large. Whether these challenges will be met satisfactorily will depend upon the principals themselves. The future of the elementary principalship is thus largely in the hands of those now holding the positions. What will they do with it?

The attractiveness of the elementary-school principalship as a career in administration is being enhanced by the fact that in a number of states the professional status of the principal is recognized through state certification regulations. Well formulated standards for training and experience form the basis for the granting of elementary-school principals' certificates. The following outline presents the standards for the preparation and certification of elementary-school principals in the state of New York.²¹

²¹ J. C. Morrison, *Standards for the Preparation and Certification of Elementary-School Principals* (Albany, The University of the State of New York Press, 1931), pp. 3-5.

1. On and after September 1, 1932, all elementary-school principals shall be required to hold a principal's certificate issued under the authority of the Commissioner of Education.

2. For the purposes of administering this regulation the elementary-school principal shall be known as "the administrative head of one or more elementary schools who has at least half his time free for supervisory work and is responsible for the supervisory direction of the instructional activities of other teachers."

3. The elementary-school principal's certificate shall be of two grades—permanent and provisional.

4. These regulations shall not be retroactive. A permanent certificate shall be issued as of September 1, 1932, to all principals who are in service on that date, who have served continuously for a period of three or more years and who possess a teacher's certificate valid in the elementary schools; and to all other principals in service on that date who are recommended for certification by the employing superintendent.

5. The requirements for the permanent elementary-school principal's certificate shall be:

- a. Graduation from a four-year approved high-school course or equivalent.
- b. Graduation from an approved four-year college course with eighteen semester hours of professional training, including: history and principles of education, six semester hours; general and educational psychology, six semester hours; methods, observation and practice teaching, six semester hours; or graduation from an approved three-year normal school course plus twelve semester hours in approved courses; or graduation from a two-year normal school course plus a minimum of thirty-two semester hours of approved work.
- c. In addition to the foregoing, a minimum of thirty semester hours of approved work with special emphasis on preparation for the elementary-school principalship. This curriculum shall include:
 - (1) A course or courses designed to give the minimum professional preparation over and above that required of classroom teachers, needed for the administration and supervision of an elementary school. This course or courses should include the following subject-matter:
 - (a) The supervision of instruction in elementary schools

- (b) The curriculum of elementary schools
 - (c) The problem child and individual differences
 - (d) General administration
 - (e) The administrative problems of the elementary school principalship
- (2) For candidates who have inadequate preparation and experience in elementary education, courses designed to give a broad and thorough grasp of methods and subject-matter used in the several subjects and grades of the elementary schools
- (3) Practical contact with the work of the elementary school principalship. This experience may be gained through:
- (a) An assistant principalship involving close contact with the instructional program of the school, or
 - (b) An apprenticeship under a successful elementary school principal or principals, or
 - (c) Extensive, organized, directed observation of the work of elementary-school principals
- (4) *Electives.* The balance of the thirty required hours shall be selected from any of the following fields that would contribute most to the well rounded preparation of the individual for the elementary principalship:
- (a) Additional courses in the administration and supervision of elementary schools
 - (b) Other courses in education, for example, philosophy of education, educational psychology, educational sociology
 - (c) Courses contributing to a general cultural background
 - (d) Courses in elementary education
- d. Five years' experience in teaching or supervisory work, at least two years of which shall have been in direct contact with the general instructional work of elementary schools.
6. The requirements for the provisional elementary certificate shall be:
- a. Graduation from a four-year approved high-school course or equivalent
 - b. Graduation from a four-year approved college with eighteen semester hours of professional training (as enumerated above); or graduation from a three-year approved normal

school course plus twelve semester hours in approved courses; or graduation from a two-year normal school course plus a minimum of thirty-two semester hours of approved work.

- c. Two years' successful experience in teaching or supervisory work. Experience as teacher, teaching principal, assistant principal, or general grade supervisor in elementary schools will be accepted. Experience as teacher of special subjects in senior high school or as teacher or supervisor of special subjects in junior or elementary schools may be accepted.
- d. This provisional certificate will be issued for five years and will not be subject to renewal.

7. A certificate to a candidate for appointment will be issued only upon written recommendation of the employing superintendent of schools.

There are other advantages of the elementary principalship which merit consideration by those who are anticipating a professional career. While accurate figures are not available as to the exact tenure of elementary-school principals, the principalship is generally considered a very stable position. Usually the principal is not subject to the vicissitudes of political changes, either in the government of the city or the administration of the schools. In many of the larger cities tenure is assured by state law, provided good behavior and efficient service prevail. Tenure as measured by the number of years principals have been in their present positions ranges from a median of four years in the western part of the United States to approximately ten years in the northeastern part. The median for the United States as a whole is 5.75 years.²² Pension and retirement provisions for persons engaged in public-school teaching have been established by legislation in two-thirds of the states.

The elementary-school principalship offers many satisfactions which come from the professional status of the position. Few positions offer the continuous opportunities for personal and professional growth and development which may be found

²² *The Elementary School Principalship*, *op. cit.*, p. 174.

in the principalship. Neither are there many types of positions which offer greater opportunities for service. Social position and community contacts are usually readily available to the extent that an individual principal may choose to participate. The principal also enjoys the other advantages of the teaching profession. Of no little importance and satisfaction to the individual is the fact that he, as principal, can claim membership in a group of high-type professional people who ascribe to and adhere to high standards of professional ethics.²³ All told, the elementary-school principalship has much to commend it as a professional career. To make the most of it, principals in service and those anticipating the profession should qualify themselves thoroughly by attendance at professional schools; reading of professional magazines and books; reading of a general cultural character; membership in professional organizations and attendance at their meetings; visitation of schools; home study; and ample apprenticeship experience in teaching and administrative work. It is only as principals become competent professional leaders that the principalship can evolve into the important administrative position which the signs of the times presage. If the professional elementary-school principal—as defined at the beginning of this chapter and as demanded by the fact that the principal holds the key to the improvement of elementary education—can be secured throughout the length and breadth of the land, the principalship will indeed have become a life-interest profession. There will be little need for regarding the elementary principalship as a stepping stone to the junior- or senior-high-school principalship or the superintendency. The writer has little sympathy for the methods of school administration which compel individuals to be constantly preparing themselves for one position while attempting to hold another. The organization and administration of elementary schools as a unit in the system of public education are not likely to

²³ *Ethics in the Teaching Profession, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. 9, No. 1 (January, 1931), pp. 88-89.

attain their ultimate possibilities, and the elementary schools are not likely to make their maximum contribution so long as disinterested principals use them as parking places while they are awaiting appointments in the secondary schools.

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